

IDENTIFICATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF COLD-REGULATED GENES
IN COLD-HARDFY CECIDUS-RESISTANT *Peridiplosis* S. 1862

By

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To my husband Stephen

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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**IDENTIFICATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF COLD-INDUCED GENES
IN COLD-HARDY CITRUS RELATIVE *Poncirus trifoliata* (L.) Raf**

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Citrus is a cold-sensitive plant and most commercially important varieties of citrus are susceptible to freezing. On the other hand, *Poncirus trifoliata* is an intermediate Citrus relative that can tolerate temperatures as low as -18°C when cold-acclimated. To identify genes involved in cold tolerance in *P. trifoliata*, cDNA libraries were constructed from 2 day cold acclimated and nonacclimated *Poncirus* seedlings using a subtractive hybridization method. A total of 112 randomly picked clones, 114 from the cold induced library and 34 from the cold repressed library, were sequenced. Most of these clones showed sequence homology to previously characterized cold-induced or environmental stress-regulated genes from other plants that were deposited in GenBank.

Expression of these cDNAs was analyzed by reverse northern blot hybridization with cold-acclimated and nonacclimated probes. Analysis of expression data showed that expression of 74 cDNAs was increased 2- to 40-fold during cold acclimation. On the other hand, expression of only a few genes was repressed in response to cold. Three partial cDNAs (P1-10a, P1-CT3, and P1-CC3) showing homology to previously

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Citrus originated in tropical regions of Southeast Asia, and have been cultivated for about 4-500 years. With annual production of more than 100-million metric tons, citrus has become one of the world's most important fruit crops. It is distributed and commercially grown widely in tropical and subtropical regions of the world. Citrus production is mostly limited by low temperatures outside of the region. Citrus trees is a cold-sensitive plant, low temperatures and frosts result in significant damage and economic losses in subtropical citrus growing regions, including Florida. Although cold frosts come relatively frequently in citrus growing regions, a number of severe destructive frosts have affected citrus production in the last century. Besides the economic losses due to destruction of citrus trees and fruits, these frost-damages forced relocation of citrus production to warmer regions.

Environmental conditions often are limiting factors for plant growth and development. To cope with changes in their environments, plants have developed different mechanisms for adapting to new environments. Citrus agricultural production of commercially important crops is seriously affected by unfavourable environmental conditions, understanding of plants' responses to environmental stresses has been an important research area. The study of environmental stress and adaptation not only provides an understanding of the environmental stress mechanisms of plants, but also allows the development of strategies for the improvement of stress tolerance in agricultural crops.

Temperature is one of the variable environmental conditions showing daily and seasonal changes. Therefore, exposure to low temperature is one of the most common environmental stresses on plants. Low temperatures also have a negative effect on plant growth and development. Thus, some plants have developed adaptive mechanisms, with acclimation, to survive in low temperature conditions. Cold acclimation is a process by which exposure to low non-freezing temperatures increases a plant's tolerance to subsequent freezing temperatures. During this process, a series of measurable physiological and biochemical changes is induced by the expression of specific genes. Gene-expression analysis of cold-acclimated plants showed that several hundred genes are induced during low-temperature exposure of plants, including the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* L. and economically important agricultural crops. Isolation and characterization of genes induced during cold acclimation revealed that they were involved in a variety of cellular functions. Identifying these genes gives a better understanding of the mechanisms of cold tolerance, and allows the development of more cold-tolerant plants using genetic engineering.

Since in our cold-sensitive and economically important crop, the development of a cold-tolerant cotton plant is an important objective for cotton producers as cotton crop is greatly affected by freezing. In the last century, breeders discovered the existence of major cold tolerance in the most economically valuable cotton, *Perseaiva triflora*. Since then, a number of crosses between *Perseaiva* and *Gossypium* have been made to migrate the cold tolerance that was ancestral cotton possesses. However, even though breeding programs generated a few hybrid cottons for production, the development of cold-

tolerant cotton plant cultivars with acceptable heritability characteristics has yet to be successful to date.

Recent developments in molecular biology have enabled the identification of key genes involved in cold/acid-tolerance and cold tolerance in plants. It has been shown in a number of different plants that cold tolerance can be improved by manipulating the expression of these genes in transgenic plants. This approach has the potential to improve cold tolerance in cotton as well. Efficient genetic transformation methods are in place for cotton. However, there is insufficient information about regulation of cold tolerance in *Perovskia* and also a lack of genes that can be used for improving cold tolerance by genetic engineering in *Cotton*. Therefore, studying gene expression during cold acclimation of *Perovskia* is needed to identify genes involved in cold tolerance and to develop cold-tolerant cotton cultivars.

The overall objective of this study was to identify and characterize genes involved in cold tolerance in *Perovskia*. The specific objectives were (I) to construct subtractive cDNA libraries for identification of cold-regulated genes from cold-acclimated *Perovskia* *trichomanes*, (2) to analyze expression of cold-regulated genes from the cDNA libraries, (3) to isolate and clone cold-induced genes from cold-acclimated *Perovskia*, (4) to study expression of selected cold-induced genes under cold and drought stresses, and (5) to demonstrate nuclear localization of two previously identified cold-induced genes (COR11 and COR14).

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Environmental Stressors

Plantspecies are distributed all over the world andare grown in different climates and environmental conditions. Like other organisms, plants are exposed to abiotic and biotic stresses in their environment. Thus, plant growth and development as well as crop production arehighly influenced or even limited by environmental conditions such as soil and moisture, light, temperature, and water. To survive extreme environmental conditions, plants evolved to adapt to these environments and develop mechanisms to cope with the stresses induced by these conditions. Photoperiodism, seed and bud dormancy, and low-temperature responses are some examples of adaptive mechanisms that plants develop through their growth period. Many dicots and gymns promote or delay flowering in response to day length by using photoperiodism. Seeds delay developmental processes until the conditions required for germination are met using a mechanism called seed dormancy. Similarly, many temperate-zone trees stop bud growth in response to low temperatures (Tan and Rogers 1994), which is called bud-dormancy.

Temperature Stress

Temperature is one of the most common environmental conditions causing abiotic stress on plants. It has a significant role in the plant life cycle and is important for both developmental and physiological aspects of plants. Therefore, exposure of plants to high, low and freezing temperatures represent significant stress to them and adversely affects their growth and development. Although high-temperature-related stress is not important

an low-temperature-induced stress. Low temperature-induced stress is the focus of this review. When plants are exposed to low temperatures, it causes two types of injury: chilling and freezing (Starkweather et al., 1998).

Chilling Injury

Plant exposure to low but non-freezing temperatures is called chilling. Depending on the evolutionary origin of plants, chilling injury may occur at temperatures between 0 and 15°C. While tropical and subtropical plants show chilling injury at 0°C and 10°C, respectively, most temperate plants show chilling injury at temperatures between 0°C and 4°C (Nishida and Miyake 1998; Fowler and Lamm 2002). Severity of injury during chilling is species dependent, and plants can be divided into three different classes according to their chilling sensitivity. The first group is extreme-chilling-sensitive plants, generally tropical originating plants, including *Euphorbia pulchra* (Ruffa), *Caryopteris kawana* L., and *Pigea volubilis* L. In this group, chilling injury is rapid and irreversible. A second group showing delayed response to chilling is called chilling-sensitive plants, such as *Cucumis sativus* L., *Ojivata sativa* (L.) Mill., *Lycopersicon esculentum* L., and *Hydrocotyle volubilis* L. The third group is chilling-tolerant plants including *Arabidopsis thaliana* L., *Brassica oleracea* L., *Pisum sativum* L., and *Helianthus annuus* L. This group shows no chilling injury unless plants are exposed to another stress factor (Kozak and Wise 2008).

Symptoms of chilling injuries are generally similar across species and can cause many physiological disruptions in plants including swelling and desiccation of both chloroplasts and mitochondria, reduced size and number of starch granules, dilution of thylakoids and unstacking of grana, lipid droplet accumulation in chloroplasts, and accumulation of chlorophyll in the nucleus (Kozak and Wise 2008). Severity of chilling

injury depends upon different factors including light, duration of chilling, relative humidity, acclimation, and various stages of plants (Nishida and Minoda 1996, Katsube and Woot 2000). When *Scirpus setacea* spp. were evaluated, no chilling injury was observed in the darkness. However, symptoms of chilling injury such as bleaching of chlorophyll, accumulation of lipid droplets, and degradation of lipids were observed during chilling in the light (Jagalski 1993). Although short exposure to chilling temperatures may not induce any injury to certain plants, longer exposure to the same chilling temperatures can cause irreversible injuries (Katsube and Woot 2000). Similarly, it was observed in both cotton and banana that high relative humidity acts as a protective factor for chlorophyll and reduces the risk of injury during chilling (Woot et al. 1983). When different developmental stages were evaluated, it was found that seedlings were more susceptible than mature plants, and the pollen developmental stage was the most sensitive to chilling temperatures (Nishida and Minoda 1996).

When injury occurs during chilling, cells can die in two different ways. The first one is called necrotic cell death, which involves swelling of the cell and thus leads resulting in leakage of cellular contents. The other proposed mechanism is programmed cell death (PCD). This involves generation of reactive oxygen species that in turn trigger an increase in free Ca^{2+} ions that act as second messengers, and stimulate a cascade of proteolytic enzymes involved in the cleavage of key proteins that finally results in the systematic death of the cell (Katsube and Woot 2000).

Freezing Injury

The second type of injury caused by low temperatures is freezing injury, which occurs when the temperature drops below the freezing point of water. Exposure to low freezing temperatures may result in intracellular or extracellular freezing. Intracellular

freezing occurs when ice crystals form within the cells rather than external nucleation on the cell or by penetration of an external ice crystal into the cell. This type of freezing damages the protoplasmic structure, and growing ice crystals kill the cell. When ice forms outside of the cell, the freezing is called extracellular. In this type of freezing, water is withdrawn from the protoplast and the protoplast becomes dehydrated. The capacity of extracellular spaces for growing ice crystals and the ability of the protoplast to withstand dehydration are key determinants of the freezing resistance in various species. Thus in this case, cooling must be slow relative to rates exposure to low temperatures can cause extracellular freezing and cell death (Gep 1996, Zhu and Zeng 1994, Fowler and Lewis 2002).

Plant Response and Adaptation to Low Temperature

Since plants are unable to move to change their environment, they must adapt to changes in their environment. Plants have developed and used several strategies to tolerate temperature stress induced by low and freezing temperatures. Supercooling and cold acclimation are the two most common low-temperature-tolerance mechanisms by which plants protect themselves from freezing temperatures.

Supercooling

Aquatic organisms may remain in the liquid state when cooled below the freezing point which otherwise is supercooling. Solutions may supercool to different degrees before they spontaneously freeze. The temperature at which spontaneous nucleation occurs is termed the supercooling point or temperature of crystallization (Zachariasen and Krimm 2006). In the absence of any ice nucleation sites, water will remain in the liquid phase down to -38°C . In the presence of ice nucleation sites, ice crystals are formed and can grow up to -8°C . In some plants, water in the cell is supercooled and

measured above the supercooling point to avoid freezing. Presence of solutes in the cell will further lower the supercooling point a few degrees, allowing plants to survive temperatures near -40 to -45°C .

Using supercooling, some woody plants can withstand temperatures of approximately -40°C by protecting critically important tissues including dormant buds and xylem by parenchyma. As temperatures drop in the fall, these plant tissues are hardened by exposure to temperatures below 5°C for several days. Although these processes are not fully understood, some modifications were observed in membrane properties. Lack of ice-nucleating sites prevents formation of ice on the protoplasm of some tissues. Thus, some cells avoid freezing and show deep-supercooling many degrees below the freezing point (in about -30°C) (Faxon and Hay 2002).

Cold Acclimation

It has been shown in many plants that exposure to low non-freezing temperatures below 5°C induces tolerance to subsequent freezing temperatures. This process is called cold acclimation, and is used by many plants to cope with stress induced by low temperatures. Plants have different responses to low temperatures and maximum freezing tolerance in cold-acclimated plants is not constant, but it is induced as response to low non-freezing temperatures (Thomson 1998). As temperatures drop in early fall, the freezing tolerance of plants increases gradually. This acclimation is less fall standing in the northern latitudes of plants. When the temperatures increase, the cold acclimation process can be reversed, which is called deacclimation. While cold-acclimation takes two weeks to several months depending on the species, deacclimation takes approximately a week or shorter. Even though cold acclimation is a long process that takes weeks to

months, molecular changes that could lead to freezing tolerance of plants can be detected at very early stages of cold acclimation (Day 1990).

During cold acclimation, a series of physiological and biochemical changes take place in the plants which results from activation of specific gene expression (Day 1990). These changes include the accumulation of compatible solutes, such as soluble sugars, betaine, and polyols; alterations of membrane lipid composition; increase in dehydrin and (ABG) concentrations, and antioxidant activity (Chen and Xia 2003, Smallwood and Bowden 2002).

Accumulation of Compatible Solutes

Plants accumulate low molecular weight organic solutes such as sugars, polyols and glycerol betaine in response to low temperature and other stress conditions that cause depletion of cellular water including drought and high salinity. During cellular dehydration, these compounds increase osmotic pressure and prevent loss of water from cells. These organic solutes are called compatible solutes and have a hypothesized function as cryoprotectants by preventing protein denaturation. They maintain membrane integrity by interacting with polar head groups of phospholipids or forming hydrogen-bonded interactions with the membrane. They are also molecules that lower the freezing point of cytosol (Day 1990, Hunt et al. 1998 Smallwood and Bowden 2002).

Accumulation of sugars, primarily sucrose and the raffinose families of oligosaccharides (RFOs) such as raffinose and melibiose were observed in many plants in response to environmental stresses including exposure to low temperatures. (Hessley et al. 1992; Hessley et al. 1993, Cotteropay and Maden 1998). These increases are correlated with the increased activity of enzymes involved in the synthesis of these sugars (Day 1990). Sucrose-phosphate synthase (SPS) and galactinol synthase (GAL) are the key

enzymes in the cytosol and KPO isocytosolic pathways, respectively. A correlation between increased activities of SPS and LE and the levels of sucrose and KPO, respectively was reported in alfalfa (Cormeguy and Hildner 1989). In addition, an increase in the endogenous levels of glucose, fructose, raffinose, and stachyose was observed at the onset of cold acclimation, in August and their levels reached a maximum in December and January in grapes (Hawmans et al. 1994).

Sugars might have a role in acclimation by increasing intracellular osmotic potential (Cove et al. 1983). This process lowers the freezing temperature and prevents drying of the cells by retaining more liquid water inside the cell, which provides a longer period of metabolic activity during intracellular freezing (Larott 1980). Sugars also have a role in cryoprotection of cell membranes and proteins (Zey 1988). They act as cryoprotectants by protecting cell membranes from high concentrations of electrolytes (Cove et al. 1984).

Glycolithionin is another compatible solute that accumulates in response to many stresses including low temperature (Allard et al. 1994), salinity (Cove and Miao 1984), and drought (Ludovisi et al. 1981). Based on *in vitro* studies, glycolithionin appears to maintain the functions of enzymes and complex proteins and maintain the integrity of membranes under stress conditions (Edwards and Muris 1984; Smallwood and Hildner 1985). It is synthesized from choline by a two step reaction reaction. During the first reaction reaction of choline, betaine aldehyde is obtained by the activity of choline monooxygenase enzyme. Then, glycolithionin is synthesized by the activity of betaine aldehyde dehydrogenase enzyme during the second oxidation step of choline (Barnett et al. 1988; Liu 2000). The genes encoding both enzymes have been cloned from many

plants including barley (Johansson *et al.*, 1993), rice (Makamori *et al.* 1997), and spinach (Katharopoulos *et al.* 1997).

Three exogenous applications of glycosylated enhancers stress tolerance (Mikale *et al.* 1994). chlorol monooxygenase and benzene ribitylde dehydrogenase have been introduced into plants separately to obtain glycosylated. These studies were not successful because sufficient amounts of chlorol substrate and benzene ribitylde were unavailable in the cell (Nicolis *et al.* 1999, Liu 2002). When a heterologous benzene ribitylde dehydrogenase gene was introduced into rice along with exogenous benzene ribitylde, transgenic rice plants accumulated glycosylated and showed resistance against salt and low temperature (Katharou *et al.* 2000). Another way to obtain glycosylated is via oxidation of chlorol by chlorol oxidase (COO) and one exogenous catalyzed reaction in the soil bacteria, *Arthrobacter globiformis* and *Arthrobacter parvus*. The *Coil* and *ox* genes, which encode COO of *A. globiformis* and *A. parvus* respectively, have been introduced into many plants including *Arabidopsis* (Hayashi and Murata 1999), rice (Makamori *et al.* 1998), tobacco (Huang *et al.* 2000), and *Brassica napus* (Huang *et al.* 2000). These transgenic plants showed improved tolerance to several abiotic stresses including low temperature stress (Makamori and Murata 2004). In the transgenic plants, the phase transition from the liquid crystalline to the gel state was shifted (Makamori and Murata 2004, Smithwood and Bowles 2002).

Plants accumulate proteins in response to different environmental stresses (Hart *et al.* 1999) including low temperature (Datta and Aronow 1997). There are several roles of proteins in plant stress tolerance including osmoregulation (Nicolis *et al.* 1997) and induction of osmotically regulated genes (Qian and Copley 1994), stabilization of proteins

and membranes (Kinsch et al. 1986) as well as protection against reactive oxygen species (Jolly, Gurneill and Corbett 1995). Protein accumulation was observed after exogenous application of ABA in many plants including barley (Pons 1987) and maize (Xie and Li 1993). Based on studies with ABA mutants, protein accumulation can be observed through both ABA-dependent and ABA independent regulation mechanisms (Nelson et al. 1986). A correlation between the accumulation of proteins and improved cold tolerance has been observed in many plants including wheat (Dorling et al. 1992), poplar (Binks and Austin 1987), and *Arabidopsis* (Xie and Bressan 1996). In addition, some mutants with constitutively high levels of protein showing enhanced freezing tolerance have been isolated, for example the *Arabidopsis* colored mutant (*col*). After cold acclimation, cold plants maintained their high level of protein, which is 18-fold higher than cold-acclimated wild-type plants (Xie and Bressan 1996).

Alterations of Lipid Composition and Membrane Structure

Studies of freezing and chilling injuries have indicated that membranes are the primary target. Exposure to low temperatures causes damage to the plasma membrane due to cellular dehydration. Several types of membrane damage can result from freezing injury in plants, including exposure induced lysis, lamellar re-organization (H_2) phase transitions, and thermal jump lesions (Thomson 1996). In exposure-induced lysis, freezing and thawing induce exposures and eventually lysis of protoplasts. During freezing of the medium, water diffuses out of the protoplast, reducing the tension in the cytoplasm, which results in endocytotic invagination of the plasma membrane. Formation of vesicles does not cause injury, but it significantly reduces the surface area of the plasma membrane. When the medium thaws, water diffuses into protoplasts increasing the cytoplasmic volume and resulting in re-expansion of the plasma membrane. The

membranes are not readily re-encapsulated, leading to lysis of the protozoists (Drengert and Siegelman 1984). Under non-leaving conditions, polar head groups of phospholipids are oriented in the aqueous core of the lipid bilayer of the membrane. During freezing, low-temperature-induced dehydration causes a phase transition from lamellar to the H_2 phase in which three-dimensional discontinuous structures with long tails of lipids are formed. The formation of the H_2 phase disrupts the membrane structure by changing continuity and nonpermeability of the plasma membrane, leading to solute leakage and introduction of ice inclusions into the cells (Drengert-Kaplan and Siegelman 1984). In some plants, instead of an H_2 phase transition, fluidity jump domains were observed in localized regions in which the fluidity phase in the plasma membrane has "jumped" to level of the endomembranes that are in close apposition to the plasma membrane (Widell and Siegelman 1984).

Chilling also induces structural changes in cell membranes. It has been reported that membrane permeability was increased in response to chilling. This process can leakage and altered ion balance in chilling sensitive tissues. During chilling, phase changes (bound to cold) occur in membrane lipids, which results in destruction of membrane-bound enzymes, leading to slower respiration, inhibition of photosynthesis and protein synthesis, and increased degradation of proteins (Tao and Zenger 1991; Nakabe and Okamoto 1994; Fitter and Hay 2002). It has been reported that cold acclimation prevents the membrane damage caused by freezing and chilling injuries, including expensive reduction of lysis and formation of H_2 phase transition in ice (Siegelman et al. 1986). Stabilization of membranes during cold acclimation can be attributed to several factors including changes in lipid composition, accumulation of sugars, and

dehydration. It was suggested that dehydration stabilizes the membranes through hydrophobic interaction with phospholipids (Cline 1993, 1997) and may protect integrity of membranes by preventing lamellar-to-hexagonal phase transition (Thomson 1999). It has been shown that in plants and other organisms, the level of unsaturated fatty acids increases at low temperature. Increase in unsaturation of membrane lipids compensates for the reduced membrane fluidity and viscosity induced by low temperature. A correlation between chilling sensitivity of plants and unsaturation of membrane lipids was observed and studies have indicated that plants containing higher percentages of unsaturated fatty acids generally showed more chilling resistance (Oikawa and Murai 1994). Therefore, enzymes involved in unsaturation of membranes, such as acyltransferase and desaturase from plants and microorganisms, have been used for improving cold tolerance in plants (Potholuet and Murai 1996, Liu 2002).

Changes in ABA Level

An increase in the level of ABA in response to low temperature was first observed in cold-suscepting *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Kumamoto). The increase was transient and was not observed in cold-tolerating plants. In addition, exogenous application of ABA increased the freezing tolerance of *A. thaliana* at same temperature (Chen et al. 1993). Later, it was shown that ABA levels increased in response to low temperature in other plants (Lark and Bostling 1983, Lee et al. 1993, Ling et al. 1994), and exogenous application of ABA increased the freezing tolerance of many plants (Du et al. 1994, Ishikawa et al. 1996). Exogenous application of ABA also increased the expression of COR genes, including COR15A, COR15B, COR15C and COR15D (Hagström et al. 1993; Kubota and Yasuda 1993; Gilmore et al. 1993; Morita et al. 1993; Gilmore et al. 1993; Yanozaki-Suzumoto and Katozuka 1993). It was shown that expression of some cold

regulated genes, such as *Arabidopsis* RAS11 and *at11a*, was dependent on ABA and the three genes carry putative ABA-responsive elements (ABREs) in their promoters (Liang et al. 1992; Morita et al. 1993; Weller et al. 1994; Yanozaki-Sakamoto and Sakamoto 1994). Gene expression through ABREs is regulated by bZIP transcription factors and several cold-regulated bZIP proteins were identified in plants, including *Arabidopsis* (Liang et al. 1994; Chen et al. 2000) rice (Agarwal et al. 1997), and maize (Kassam et al. 1995). Studies on the *aba1* mutant in *Arabidopsis* showed that the ABA-induced accumulation of these COR genes was eliminated, but cold-induced accumulation of these transcripts was not affected in this mutant. Consequently, it was concluded that cold-regulated expression of these genes was controlled by an ABA-independent pathway (Gilmour et al. 1994; Morita et al. 1994).

Changes in Antioxidant Activity

Active oxygen species (AOS) such as superoxide anion ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) are produced by the reduction of molecular oxygen (O_2) and the hydroxyl radicals (OH^{\cdot}) which are produced in cells under stress conditions (Bea, 2002). Levels of AOS increase at low temperatures, causing oxidative stress in the cell. Oxidative stress damages cells in different ways, including lipid peroxidation, membrane deterioration, protein and nucleic acids degradation, and chlorophyll quenching (Gardiner 1990; Barrow et al. 1994; Puri et al. 2000). Plants and other organisms produce a variety of antioxidants to control AOS levels and to prevent oxidative stress in their cells. Antioxidants can be divided into three groups. The first group contains lipid soluble and membrane-associated compounds. The second group includes water soluble molecules, such as ascorbic acid and glutathione. The last group includes the metalloidal enzymes: superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase

(APX), monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDAR), dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR), and glutathione reductase (GR) (Foyer 1999; Liu 2002).

It has been observed that the levels of antioxidants in many plants increase at low temperatures during cold acclimation to prevent or reduce the potential damage of increased levels of ROS. It has been observed that the antioxidant enzymes SOD, APX, CAT, MDAR, DHAR, and GR are involved in ROS detoxification systems in plants (Jin 2002). SOD catalyzes the dismutation of two superoxide radicals into oxygen and hydrogen peroxide. The APX and CAT detoxify the hydrogen peroxide by converting it to water. In addition, APX, ascorbate monooxidase and ascorbate MDAR, DHAR, and GR are involved in ascorbate acid recovery. Although CAT is localized only in the vacuoles in almost all plant species, the other enzymes are found in multiple isozymes at different locations in the cell. According to the metal cofactor involved, SOD can be divided into three groups: Mn-SOD, Fe-SOD, and Cu,Zn-SOD, which are localized in the mitochondria, chloroplast, and cytoplasm and nucleus, respectively (Hultiney and Hultiney 1999; Liu 2002). It was shown that APX and GR levels increase when H₂O₂ accumulates in the cell under low-temperature conditions in Arabidopsis (Q. Kang et al. 1996) and Fe-SOD and Cu,Zn-SOD levels increase when tobacco plants are chilled (Tang et al. 1995). Since these enzymes levels increase in stress conditions, they were overexpressed in transgenic plants to study their roles in stress tolerance. When cytoplasmic Cu,Zn-SOD was overexpressed, resistance to winter light and low temperature was improved in transgenic tobacco plants (Gupta et al. 1993a; Gupta et al. 1993b). Overexpression of Mn-SOD and Fe-SOD in transgenic alfalfa also resulted in improved resistance to low temperature (McKersie et al. 1993; McKersie et al. 1998).

However, transgenic tomato plants overexpressing *ErbB1* and *ER* showed no improvement in chilling tolerance (Folgaraj et al. 1999).

Changes in Gene Expression

Physiological and biochemical changes leading to freezing tolerance in plants have been associated with changes in gene expression during cold acclimation. Although this has been postulated and demonstrated to a great, but not a great extent, changes in gene expression during cold acclimation has been only recently studied extensively in many plants. It has been shown that there is a correlation between accumulation of soluble proteins in various leaf cells of black locust trees and freezing tolerance (Sakic-Skocich and Budge 1999). Wilkins (1976) proposed that maximum freezing tolerance of temperate woody perennials is associated with changes in gene expression and synthesis of new proteins during cold acclimation. Gray et al. (1981) demonstrated that expression of a number of genes was altered in spinach during cold acclimation. Since then, many cold-regulated genes have been isolated in many plants including *Arabidopsis* (Gilmour et al. 1988; Li et al. 1988), *Brassica napus* (Dian-Vigour et al. 1993), *Chenopodium vulgare* (Duan et al. 1994), *Melospiza sativa* (Carrangany et al. 1994), *Spinach oleracea* (Gray and Li 1988) and *Perovskia trilobata* (Cui et al. 1993). Isolation and characterization of these genes are important not only for understanding the low temperature response and the mechanism of cold tolerance in plants, but also for improving cold tolerance in agricultural crops resulting in increased plant productivity and expanded areas of agricultural production.

Cold acclimation has an effect on the expression of many genes; these genes are altogether called cold-regulated genes. The cold-regulated genes have been referred to with different terms in the literature based on the specific response of the genes under

stress conditions or by the perception of the groups working with the genes – responsive to dehydration (rd), early responsive to dehydration (erd), cold induced (ci), cold regulated (cr), and low temperature induced (lt). Most low temperature and dehydration inducible genes are in response because low temperature reduces the water potential of the extracellular compartment which causes loss of water from soil by evaporation, leading to dehydration. In addition, low temperature decreases turgor pressure as a result of dehydration, which results in the induction of the plant stress hormone ABA. Thus, some genes can be responsive to cold, dehydration, and the exogenous application of ABA, while others are induced in response to cold and dehydration stress, but not by ABA treatment. It was suggested that cold-regulated genes could be induced by different pathways and it was shown that both ABA-dependent and ABA-independent pathways exist and are involved in cold-regulated gene expression in plants (Matsuoka et al. 2000; Vannote and Day 2002).

The genes induced in response to low temperatures during cold acclimation can be divided into two groups: those directly involved in freezing protection and those that regulate gene expression. Genes in the first group are COR genes involved in freezing tolerance, and include COR15, COR1a, COR1, and COR1B isolated from *Arabidopsis* (Thaler et al. 1990). Based on DNA sequence analysis, it was shown that COR15, COR1a, and COR1B encode novel hydrophilic polypeptides and COR1B encodes a group II like nucleoside diphosphate (NDP) kinase (Thomashow 1998) that thought to function in dehydration tolerance (Kane 1997). In general, COR genes show biochemical similarities with cryoprotective proteins (Arar et al. 1996) which are plant leaf proteins that were reported for the first time in cabbage and spinach leaves and

function in protecting isolated liposomal membranes from freeze-thaw damage (Volger and Hilder 1995). These COR proteins are hydrophobic and synthesized in response to low temperatures and remain soluble upon thawing (Lerman et al. 1990). Homologs of these genes and many other cold-regulated genes have been identified and isolated from different plants. These genes encode for novel hydrophobic proteins including BGL1 from *Brassica napus* (Woodliff et al. 1993), COR from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Curtis et al. 1990), CBF1a from *Malus domestica* (Morrow et al. 1993), CAP10b from *Spartina alterniflora* (Cape et al. 1994) and hydrophobic polypeptides including BGL2a from *Arabidopsis* (Cape et al. 1997), hsc7 from *Trichostema americanum* (Gaut et al. 1987) or homologs of LER proteins including LER1 from *Arabidopsis* (Kiyosumi et al. 1994), mH1 from *Malus domestica* (Woolfson et al. 1993), CAP10 from *Spartina alterniflora* (Nixon et al. 1993), and COR15 and COR16 from *Passiflora infiflora* (Zhu et al. 1995).

To test if COR15a had a similar freezing tolerance and whether it had the same function in stabilizing and protecting proteins, transgenic plants constitutively expressing COR15a were produced. It was shown that chloroplasts of transgenic plants were 1°C to 2°C more freezing tolerant than the chloroplasts of wild type plants (Ahn et al. 1998). Later, experiments established that COR15a helps stabilize membranes during freezing by decreasing freeze induced leakage to hexagonal II phase transition (Shenoy et al. 1998). Even though constitutive expression of COR15a increased the freezing tolerance of transgenic plants, this increase was small, which was expected considering the quantitative nature of cold tolerance.

More comprehensive studies involving microarray analysis of thousands of genes revealed that up to several hundred genes were regulated during cold acclimation. These

processes involved in a variety of cellular functions including metabolism, transcription, protein fate, transport, filamentation, biosynthesis, communications and signal transduction, cell volume and defense, cell death and aging (Jinks et al. 1989 and 1992, Fowler and Thirumangalakudi 1992).

Analysis of the regulatory sequences of CDR genes revealed that promoters of CDR16 and CDR26 contained a TGGCCGAC regulatory sequence element which was induced in response to low temperature and dehydration stress (Harwell et al. 1992). This element was termed the C-septet (CST) (Fisher et al. 1994). At the same time, Yanojima, Shimozaki and Shimozaki (1995) found that the promoter of R2224, (CDR26-LTR) contained a regulatory TACCGACAT cis-element that has a role in both dehydration and cold responses: gene expression and they called it a dehydration response element (DRE). Both CST and DRE elements have the same five base pair (bp) core sequence, TCGAC, and multiple copies are found in the promoters of many cold- and dehydration-regulated genes.

Characterization of regulatory sequences of the cold and dehydration response genes provided researchers with necessary information for the identification of the regulatory protein binding to these sequences. A regulatory protein binding to the CRT/DRE element was isolated using a yeast one hybrid screen and was designated the CRT/DRE Binding Factor 1 (CBF1) (Shenkinger et al. 1997). It has a molecular mass of 34 kDa, a putative bipartite nuclear localization signal, an AP2 DNA-binding domain which contains a 68 amino acids (aa) motif present in a number of plant proteins including Arabidopsis AP2/LAL1, AINTEGUMENTA, and TINY, as well as the tobacco etiolins element response binding protein (EREBP) and an acidic region that

function as an activation domain (Buckinger et al. 1991). Two additional members of CBF protein were isolated by screening an *Arabidopsis* cDNA library prepared from cold acclimated plants and were designated CBF2 and CBF3. Based on the sequence of CBF proteins, they were 80% identical and 74% similar to each other (Zhang et al. 1998).

Independently, Lee et al. (1998) isolated two proteins-binding to DBF elements, also using a yeast one-hybrid screening technique, and called them DBF-binding proteins (DBF1A and DBF1B), which were induced in response to low temperature and dehydration and high salt stresses, respectively. Like CBF proteins, both DBF binding proteins contain an MYB/ZIP domain. Except for the similarities found in the DBF binding domain, there is no significant sequence homology between the two DBF binding proteins. Using DBF1A sequence, two more DBF binding proteins designated DBF1B and DBF1C were isolated (Lee et al. 1998). The DBF binding proteins DBF1B, DBF1C and DBF1A are identical to the CRT binding proteins CRT1, CRT2 and CRT3, respectively, and regulate expression of genes containing the CRT/DRE sequence element in their promoters (Buckinger et al. 1992; Lee et al. 1998; Zhang et al. 1998; Shumway et al. 1998) in response to both low temperatures and dehydration through an ABA independent pathway (Yanagisawa, Shimada, and Shumway 1998). These three genes form the CBF/CRT/DBF protein family. They were mapped to a direct repeat on chromosome 4 in the order CBF/DBF1B, CBF/DBF1A, and CBF/DBF1C (Zhang et al. 1998; Zhang et al. 1998). The activities of all CBF/DBF proteins change depending on the CBF promoter sequences. This result indicates that CBF binding to the CRT/DBF sequence depends not only on the CRT/DBF

late CRT response, but also on nucleotides outside of this core sequence (Johnson et al. 1994).

Since CBF/DREB proteins are involved in regulation of cold and dehydration response genes, these proteins were expressed in transgenic plants for improving cold tolerance. Overexpression of CBF/DREB proteins under the control of the constitutive CaM158 promoter increased freezing tolerance in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants (Jaglo-Okunieff et al. 1998; Lee et al. 1998; Krasige et al. 1999; Johnson et al. 2000). When CBF1 was expressed in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants, it induced the expression of CDR genes containing the CRT/DRE element, including CDR1-6, CDR15a, CDR45, and CDR78, without a low temperature stimulus, and increased the freezing tolerance of non-acclimated *Arabidopsis* plants (Jaglo-Okunieff et al. 1998). Freezing and dehydration tolerance were also observed in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants overexpressing DREB1A and DREB1A, which was correlated with the level of expression of the stress-inducible genes under unstressed conditions. In these plants, the expression level of RD29A was induced more than in the wild-type plant under unstressed or stress conditions including, low temperature, dehydration, high salt and ABA treatment. However, transgenic plants expressing DREB1A and DREB1A showed severe seed cold growth retardation, respectively (Lee et al. 1998).

Arabidopsis plants overexpressing CBF1 showed that transcript levels of CBF3 were almost equal in nonacclimated and cold-treated transgenic plants, but were higher than in nonacclimated or cold-treated control plants. In addition, expression of CDR genes CDR15a and CDR64 were similar in nonacclimated and cold-treated transgenic plants as well as in cold-acclimated-control plants. These transgenic plants also have a

dwarf phenotype with shorter leaves compared to the control plants and require more time for flowering. Increased flowering tolerance was observed in both non-acclimated and cold-acclimated CBF3-expressing plants compared to non-acclimated or cold-acclimated control plants. They also accumulated *genistein 2-O-glucuronide 3-carboxylate synthase* (F3CS), which is a key enzyme in determining the genistein level in plants and soluble sugars including sucrose, raffinose, glucose and fructose. These results indicated that over-expressing CBF3 leads to multiple biochemical changes that generally occur in plants during cold acclimation. Thus, CBF3 appears to be a key regulatory gene that functions in activating multiple mechanisms resulting in increasing the flowering tolerance of plants (Kobayashi et al. 2005).

These over-expression studies demonstrated that flowering tolerance, which is a quantitative trait involving many genes, can be manipulated and improved by the expression of single regulatory genes. However, the overexpression of these regulatory genes under strong constitutive promoters are physiologically costly to the plant, resulting in undesirable genetic phenotypes such as those observed in transgenic plants overexpressing CBF1/CBF3/ERF1A. To attempt to reduce adverse effects of overexpression of CBF/ERF proteins in transgenic plants, Kasuga et al. (1995) expressed ERF1A under the stress-inducible promoter of the *rd29A* gene in *Arabidopsis*. These transgenic plants showed a greater improvement in drought, salt and cold tolerance and less or a similar level of growth retardation compared to transgenic plants overexpressing the same gene under a strong constitutive promoter (Kasuga et al. 1995).

Given the importance of CBF/ERF transcription factors in regulation of cold-responsive genes was established in *Arabidopsis*, the presence of this pathway and

homologs of CBF/DREB1 proteins were investigated in other plants. CBF/DREB-like proteins were identified and characterized in *Brassica napus*, a close relative of *Arabidopsis* (Jaglo et al. 2004; Gao et al. 2002) and cold-acclimated wheat, rice (Jaglo et al. 2001) and barley (Chen et al. 2002), as well as tomato which does not cold acclimate (Jaglo et al. 2000). As in *Arabidopsis*, transcripts of CBF/DREB-like genes in *B. napus*, wheat, rice, and barley accumulated 15–30 fold after exposing plants to low temperatures (Jaglo et al. 2000; Chen et al. 2002). After the expression of these genes, expression of *ERF1*, an ortholog of *Arabidopsis* COR15a, and *WIP105/COR15* orthologues of *Arabidopsis* COR15 were induced in *B. napus*, wheat, and rice, respectively. In addition, transgenic *B. napus* plants that constitutively overexpressed *Arabidopsis* CBF genes showed accumulation of *ERF1* and *FlaB* without a low temperature stimulus and the freezing tolerance of both nonacclimated and cold-acclimated plants was increased. Based on these findings, it was concluded that the CBF/DREB cold response pathway is conserved among a number of plants including cold-sensitive and nonacclimating plants (Jaglo et al. 2000; Chen et al. 2002).

In *Arabidopsis*, transcript levels of all three CBF/DREB proteins increased within 15 min and accumulation of COR gene transcripts was observed at 2 h after transferring plants to low temperature. Based on sequence analyses, promoter regions of the three CBF genes are 50% identical in DNA sequence and they have a number of small differences and mutations. No CBF response element was observed in the promoters of any of the CBF genes, indicating that these genes are not auto-regulated. This was confirmed in transgenic plants overexpressing CBF1 in which no accumulation of CBF1 transcripts was observed. Although CBF promoters do not contain a CBF response, they

contain some genetic cold regulatory elements (including multiple copies of Mot recognition, CAATG, and AGGT core G-box sequences). In addition to these cold regulatory elements, all three promoters contain an internally repetitive sequence *ACAATTAAACAATT* approximately at the same position (Chinnus et al. 1995).

Since the expression of *CBF*/*DREB1* genes was induced within 15 min of cold acclimation, it was proposed that an unknown activator of *CBF*/*DREB1* genes which is called activator of *CBF* expression (*ICE*) should be present in the cell. It was further suggested that *ICE* would be in an inactive state at warm temperatures, and under low temperature conditions, it would be activated and induce transcription of *CBF*/*DREB1* genes by binding to *CBF*/*DREB1* promoters (Chinnus et al. 1995). Recently, an inducer of *CBF* expression i., (*ICE1*), which is an upstream transcription factor regulating the transcription of *CBF* genes in the cold, was identified and cloned. *ICE1* encodes a MYC-like bHLH transcription factor and binds to MYB recognition sequences in the promoter of *CBF1*. It was found that *ICE1* was a positive regulator of *CBF1* and a repressor in *ICE1* inhibited *CBF1* expression and decreased the expression of many *CBF* target genes, resulting in a reduction in the chilling and freezing tolerance of the mutant. Expression of *CBF1* and *CBF2* genes are less affected in the *ICE1* mutant. Overexpression of *ICE1* in wild type plants reduced the expression of the *CBF* regulon in the cold, which resulted in increasing freezing tolerance of transgenic plants (Chinnusamy et al. 2002).

Methods Used for Identification of Cold Regulated Genes

The main goal of molecular cold acclimation studies was identify genes expressed during cold stress. The most common way to identify genes expressed differentially is to compare expression of those genes under two different conditions. For

identification of *cell regulated genes*, expression studies were conducted under control and cell-stimulated conditions in many plants including *Arabidopsis* (Johnson et al. 1992, Hancock et al. 1993), *rice* (Murray et al. 1993), *barley* (Datta et al. 1993), *maize* et al. 1992), *Sonchus oleraceus* (Wentworth et al. 1993), and wheat (Chen et al. 1993). The differences in gene expression under different conditions have been studied using a variety of methods. Northern blot hybridization (Cui et al. 1993), dot blot hybridization (Miao et al. 1997) and quantitative (Sorell et al. 2002) and qualitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (Matsushima et al. 2001) were used for expression studies of single or a few differentially expressed genes. In the last decade, subtractive hybridization (Wang et al. 2007), differential display (Morioka and Osumi et al. 1988), serial analysis of gene expression (SAGE) (Matsushima et al. 1998) and sequencing of expressed sequence tags (ESTs) (Zhang et al. 2004) have been developed to study expression levels of many genes between and among different experimental conditions at the same time. More recently, microarray and massarray analysis have been developed and used for the global analysis of the expression of thousands of genes simultaneously under different experimental conditions (Jin et al. 2007). Although gene chips are presently the most powerful methods for studying gene expression on a wide scale, they require the availability of sequence information and the necessary equipment is expensive for most laboratories. Sequence information is limited for most wildflower crops, including citrus, therefore, expression must be generated using different methods such as construction and sequencing of ESTs and subsequent library for specific isolation before using micro- or macroarrays for identifying novel genes.

Subtractive Hybridization

Subtractive hybridization is a very efficient method for enrichment and isolation of differentially expressed genes. It was first described in the early 1980s for construction of cDNA libraries (Jiang and David 1983) and preparation of probes (Dove et al. 1984) of differentially expressed genes. The main goal of the subtractive hybridization is to identify differentially expressed genes by hybridizing the cDNA from one biological sample with an excess amount of mRNA from another treatment (driver). During hybridization, transcripts present in both tester and driver form an mRNA/cDNA hybrid. However, cDNA sequences present only in the tester do not hybridize with mRNA from the driver and stay single stranded. Thus, single stranded cDNAs representing differentially expressed genes are separated from double stranded complex and by hybrid/hybrid electrophoresis and cloned and used for identification of novel genes. Initially, the use of subtractive hybridization was limited by the requirement of large quantities of mRNA and a bias against the identification of rare transcripts (Moody 1991). To improve the recovery of differentially expressed genes, modifications such as tagging the cDNA with biotin (Winkler et al. 1986), or oligo(dT) tails (Huan et al. 1991) were introduced into the subtractive hybridization method. The initial amount of mRNA required for subtractive hybridization was greatly reduced by adaptation of generic linkers to cDNA (Jagadei and Bower 1990) and subtractive PCR amplification of tester cDNA between hybridization cycles (Huan et al. 1991). In addition to reducing the initial amount of mRNA required for subtractive hybridization, these improvements increased the efficiency of differentially expressed genes. The bias against the identification of rare transcripts was overcome by introduction of the Suppressor-Subtractive Hybridization (SSH) PCR technique in which differentially

expressed sequences are selectively amplified and amplification of abundant transcripts are suppressed (Duckworth et al. 1996). The SDA PCR eliminated the need for separation of single and double stranded molecules and improved the efficiency of identification of new transcripts through normalization of differentially expressed genes by suppressing abundant and excluding the new transcripts (Iwami 2001, Ji et al. 2002). The SDA PCR method has been commercialized and developed as PCR Select cDNA Subsequent Kit by Clontech (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA), which has been used widely in the identification of differentially expressed genes in different organisms (Duckworth et al. 2000, Robert et al. 2000, Loggish et al. 2001) including plants (Wang et al. 2001, Maronick et al. 2001, Wang et al. 2002, Takematsu et al. 2002). Subtractive hybridization has been useful for gene expression studies and for the identification of differentially expressed genes on a global scale without any prior sequence information. Compared to other methods, subtractive hybridization produces fewer false positives, however, it requires further studies for verification of differential expression of identified genes by northern blot analysis with gene specific probes or reverse northern blot hybridization using cDNA array analysis.

Array Analysis of Gene Expression

A microarray is a grid of DNA spots on a chip, small glass slide, or nylon membrane which is used for hybridization to determine the level of gene expression. There are three general types of microarrays including oligonucleotide chips, oligonucleotide arrays and cDNA arrays. The oligonucleotide chips consist short oligonucleotides synthesized and fixed on a glass wafer using photoactivated chemistry. The oligonucleotide arrays consist pre-synthesized oligos spotted on glass slides or on nylon

membranes. The cDNA arrays include PCR amplified inserts from cDNA or EST clones placed on glass slides or nylon membranes (Alizadeh and Brown 2004, Morley 2004).

Gene expression profiling is the most widely used application for microarray. It can be used to obtain functional information for genes with unknown functions. Statistical techniques such as hierarchical clustering, principal component analysis (PCA) and self-organizing maps (SOM) are used for grouping genes based on their expression profiles from microarray data. Hierarchical clustering of gene expression analysis uses a bottom-up approach to join genes with similar expression profiles to form nodes, which are in turn further joined. The joining process continues until all genes are combined as a single hierarchical tree based on their expression profiles. The data obtained from these analyses can give information about cellular regulatory mechanisms, and can group unknown genes with the same positive function (Alizadeh and Brown 2004).

The increasing amount of sequence information available makes microarray analysis one of the most important tools for functional genomics to close the gap between sequence information and functional identification of genes in plants. Therefore, using microarray analysis of differentially expressed plant genes in many developmental stages, different conditions, and genotypes can be classified into different groups based on their expression patterns (Kahn 2004). In plants, microarray technology was first applied to Arabidopsis to study and compare gene expression in leaf tissue and roots using 48 cDNA sequences (Schena et al. 1995). Later, a cDNA microarray containing 1480 Arabidopsis genes was used to find gene expression profiles in different organs and different developmental stages (Wang et al. 1996). Recently, microarray analysis has been widely used in Arabidopsis and other plants including rice, maize, potato,

strawberry, and banana trees, *Officia* spp.) are already grown indoors in glass or plastic tunnels, from opening, circadian-clock regulation, phytochrome A signaling, seed development, nitrate assimilation, and environmental stress (Mason and Vieri 2007). Metacore analysis has recently been used to identify genes involved in cold and drought response in *Arabidopsis* (Jale et al. 2008), *Sida* et al. 2009; Fowler and Thalerbach 2007), barley (Jensen et al. 2007), and sugarcane (Maguiness et al. 2008). Basic availability of sequence information, a limiting factor for metacore analysis, its applications can be extended to different plants as more sequences become available.

Cold Response in Citrus

Citrus is a fruit crop that grows in tropical and subtropical regions of the world. Most commercial citrus types are susceptible to low temperatures, however they are able to cold acclimate to some extent. Among the commercial citrus species, there is variation in cold sensitivity; lemons, limes, and pummelos are the most cold sensitive types followed by grapefruits, oranges, and mandarins. Pummelos is one of the most cold sensitive types and can survive only at -4 or -5°C . On the other hand, mandarins such as "Finojano", which is the most cold-tolerant of the commercial citrus, can survive temperatures as low as -18°C (Yelenik 1980; Jackson and Parola 1994). Since most citrus species are cold-sensitive, production of citrus is mostly limited by low temperatures outside tropical and subtropical regions.

Significant economic losses from freezing have been reported in subtropical citrus growing regions including Florida in the last century. These losses have destroyed significant portions of citrus trees and threaten citrus regions and as well as other several states over. An major impact frozen between 1913 and 1919 has forced reduction of citrus production further to the south in Florida (Atkinson 2000). The present

of cold damage in citrus during following a freeze depends on a number of different factors, including the severity of the freeze, the orchard location, tree dormancy, tree vigor, root and rootstock condition, crop load, and soil conditions, as well as freeze duration. Freezing induces injury symptoms in different parts of the plant. These symptoms include dark water-soaked areas on the leaves, leaf fall, bark splitting, and freeze cracks on tree trunks. In addition, flower buds often fall dropping on the surface of the fruits, and extensive internal fruit injury (Jackson 1994). A number of strategies ranging from the simple burning of lighter wood, to tree wraps, to use of relatively advanced micropropagation have been used for freeze protection in citrus. Although some of these methods provide protection from freezes, there are requires advanced freeze warnings, which require sophisticated freeze forecasts. Even though these strategies provide a certain degree of freeze protection, better protection against freeze requires development of cold tolerant citrus varieties.

A need for the development of cold-hardy citrus varieties was recognized after the freeze of 1994-95 destroyed a significant portion of the citrus in Florida. A breeding program for improving cold tolerance in commercial citrus was initiated using *Poncirus trifoliata*. This is an evergreen citrus relative that can withstand temperatures down to -20°C when cold acclimated. Since that time a breeding and/or breeding program to develop cold-hardy citrus varieties. Using *Poncirus trifoliata* as a parent, several strategies including 'Back', 'Marker', 'Bridge', and 'Trojan' were developed in the current improvement programs and 'Trojan' strategy has been used as a cold tolerant rootstock. Kanner and Price (1988), Beut and Camarero (1993), Beut and Beut (1994). More recently, progenies from open-pollinated parents as *Poncirus trifoliata* hybrids have

been generated to produce breeding-oriented virus isolates (Tishchenko et al. 1996). However, production of commercial virus varieties with good fruit quality and cold tolerance have been largely unsuccessful to date because of biological problems associated with virus breeding including long juvenile periods, polyembryony, heterozygosity, sterility, self and cross incompatibility, selfing depression, and the quantitative inheritance of cold tolerance.

Traditional breeding methods have provided limited information about the genetics of cold tolerance and have not been successful for developing cold tolerance in citrus. To overcome the limitations of conventional breeding and improve understanding of important genetic traits in citrus, molecular markers have been integrated into breeding programs. Using molecular markers, a number of genetic linkage maps were developed in citrus and *Passiflora* hybrid populations (Duchene et al. 1992; Jancil et al. 1992; Gu et al. 1994; Liu et al. 1996; Sabot-Correk 1999; Sarkar and Moore 2000; Weir et al. 2000). The genetics of cold tolerance was studied using quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping, and Citrus provides a *Passiflora* hybrid population, *passiflora-citrus* population. In this study, a QTL with a major effect and several minor QTLs with smaller effects on cold tolerance were identified using QTL mapping (Weir et al. 2000). Identification of these QTLs is important for the understanding of genetics of cold tolerance and can potentially be used for marker-assisted selection. However, application of this information for producing cold-tolerant plants will require a long time.

Even though citrus is a cold-sensitive plant, citrus test its tolerance against cold conditions when they are exposed to low non-freezing temperatures. The cold acclimation process increases the freezing tolerance by inducing changes in carbohydrate metabolism

protein, lipid, and water content of cells in acclimated plants (Yeleniksky 1982). An increasing level of carbohydrates and decreasing water content were observed in sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis* (L.) Osbeck cv. 'Valencia') grafted on solid heavily acid-tolerant orange (*Phoenix trifoliata* (L.) Raf.) during cold acclimation and these changes were correlated with an increasing level of cold tolerance (Yeleniksky 1982). When the water content and soluble sugar levels in field grown 'Valencia' orange (*Citrus sinensis*) were analyzed during the coldest weeks of winter, leaf water content and osmotic potential of field grown trees decreased about 26 to 12%,. On the other hand, soluble sugar levels were increased by 180% resulting in an increased level of freezing tolerance (Yeleniksky and Day 1979). Exposure to low temperatures also resulted in modification of protein coding in leaves of sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis* (L.) Osbeck cv. 'Valencia'). A different polypeptide composition was observed in 'Valencia' leaves that were exposed to 5°C for one week compared to control plants (Day et al. 1983). It was shown that freezing tolerance of seedlings of pummelo and trifoliata orange was increased following cold acclimation. Analysis of these seedlings revealed that the polypeptide content of cold acclimated pummelo and trifoliata orange was different compared to those of nonacclimated seedlings. Although many changes were observed in trifoliata seedlings, the differences in pummelo were limited. In addition, a large polypeptide of 140 kDa was detected only in cold-acclimated trifoliata, but not in pummelo or nonacclimated controls (Gardner et al. 1983).

Recent developments in molecular biology have enabled identification, isolation, and characterization of cold-regulated genes and provided insight into the genetics and regulation of cold tolerance in many plants. Since the identification of the first cold

inducible genes in other plants, *Pinus taeda* (L.) has been also explored for identification of cold-regulated genes for improving cold tolerance in citrus. The cold-inducible cDNA sequences were isolated from a cDNA library from the leaves of cold-tolerant *Pinus taeda* (L.). Further characterization of two of these cDNA sequences, CCB11 and CCB15, revealed that these two proteins are similar to cotton D-11 and Group 3 LER proteins. LER proteins are expressed at high levels during embryo maturation and high stress conditions resulting from loss of intercellular water. Homologs of these genes were isolated from fruits of *Citrus aurantium* (Jain et al. 1999) and grapefruit (Pentzer et al. 2001).

Application of genomic techniques for studying cold responses in *Arabidopsis* resulted in identification of several hundred cold-regulated genes (Jiang et al. 2001; Jais et al. 2000; Fowler and Thomashow 1992). Expression of many cold-regulated genes has also been identified and characterized in other plants. Identification and characterization of these genes has helped in the understanding of mechanisms of cold acclimation and tolerance. These genes have also been used for improving cold tolerance in transgenic plants. Knowledge in cold-sensitivity and cold tolerance is an important tool, understanding the cold tolerance in *Pinus* spp. which is a cold-hardy tree relative, may provide information necessary for improving cold tolerance in citrus. Although citrus and *Pinus* spp. have been tried for developing cold tolerance for many years, identification of genes involved in cold tolerance has lagged behind in *Pinus* spp. To date, only six cold-regulated cDNAs have been identified in *Pinus* spp. Considering the quantitative nature of cold tolerance in citrus and other plants, and the identification of several hundred cold-regulated genes in *Arabidopsis*, a more comprehensive study is

necessary for identification of more cold required genes in *Pinus*. Identification and characterization of more genes involved in cold tolerance may pave the road for developing cold-hardy transgenic plants.

CHAPTER 5 IDENTIFICATION OF COLD-INDUCED GENES FROM *Persea eschscholtzii* L. 2 Rat 15492 SUBTRACTIVE cDNA LIBRARIES

Introduction

Low temperatures is one of the limiting factors for cultivation of agricultural crops in certain regions. Economically important crops have been bred for temperature tolerance for many years to improve and extend the growing regions. As for many plants, in-crop maximum freezing tolerance is not constitutive, but induced in response to non-freezing temperatures below 10°C, which is called cold acclimation (Thimmonson 1990). During cold acclimation, a series of physiological and biochemical changes take place in plants that lead to the induction of specific genes (Joy 1990). Changes in gene expression between cold-acclimated (CA) and nonacclimated (NA) plants have been studied extensively in many plants using differential screening of cDNA libraries (Chinnari et al. 1992, Chaves et al. 1993, Morley et al. 1993, Wenzel et al. 1993), differential display (Harvath and Olson 1990) and subtractive cDNA libraries. A number of cold-regulated genes have been identified and characterized in many plants, including *Arabidopsis* (Chinnari et al. 1992, Harvath et al. 1993), *Senecio vulgaris* (Wenzel et al. 1993), *Pinus dens vulgaris* (Datta et al. 1993), *Medicago sativa* (Morley et al. 1994), and *Spartan alternans* (Morley et al. 1993). In addition, the regulatory sequences containing C/D/E elements have been characterized from some of these genes (Fukui et al. 1990, Yonaguchi-Sawada and Mizuno 1994). A transcription

factor (the CRT/DRE binding factor) (CBDF), involved in regulation of the cold response pathway and the expression of these genes by binding to CRT/DRE element has also been isolated in *Arabidopsis* (Sawicki et al. 1999, Calhoun et al. 1998, Lavee et al. 1998), as has its homologs in *Arabidopsis* and other plants (Jaglo et al. 2001). More recently, microarray analysis has been developed and used for a global examination of expression of thousands of genes simultaneously under different experimental conditions (Bridley 2001). Microarray analysis of thousands of genes in CA and RA *Arabidopsis* showed that up to several hundred genes were regulated by low temperatures. A majority of these genes (about 75%) was cold-induced and expression of others (about 25%) was repressed by cold (Zhu et al. 2001, Feld et al. 2002, Fowler and Thomashow 2002). Fowler and Thomashow (2002) also demonstrated that only a portion of cold-regulated genes are controlled by the CRT pathway, indicating that multiple regulatory pathways are involved in the expression of cold-regulated genes. Therefore, the identification and characterization of more genes in different plants will provide better understanding of cold response pathways and improve cold tolerance in plants.

Citrus is one of the most economically important fruit crops in the world, grown commercially in almost every country in tropical and subtropical regions. Cultivation of citrus is widely limited by low temperatures outside of this region. Low temperatures and frosts also result in significant damage and economic losses in subtropical citrus growing regions. Therefore, cold tolerance is a desirable trait for introduction into commercial citrus varieties. Most commercially important varieties of citrus are not cold-tolerant and are susceptible to frosts. Yet, there is significant variation among citrus species and relatives for cold tolerance ranging from very cold-sensitive types,

such as Chinese grasshopper locusts for the cold-hardy starburst citrus relative *Persea
 inflata* which can tolerate temperatures of -20°C when cold-hardened. Once
Persea inflata was recognized as cold-hardy, in the previous century it was used in
 breeding programs mainly in Florida (Scott and Cameron 1972) and other countries
 such as Japan and Russia (Kishita et al. 1992) in efforts to produce cold tolerant
 commercial citrus varieties. Although cold tolerant mandarin were produced by
 crossing *Persea* and Citrus, production of such varieties with good fruit quality and
 coldhardiness has been unsuccessful to date mainly because the true and clear
 characters of most of the crosses were unknown as the fruit contained high levels
 of pectin which gives a bitter taste. In addition, biological problems associated with
 citrus breeding including long juvenile periods, polyploidy, heterozygosity, sterility
 self and cross incompatibility, seedling depression, and the quantitative inheritance of
 cold tolerance have also been limiting factors for producing cold-hardy citrus varieties
 (Scott and Cameron 1972, Scott and Rouse 1996). Use of genomic and molecular
 biology techniques such as gene cloning, gene manipulation, and genetic transformation
 can overcome problems associated with breeding and provide new approaches for
 understanding and improving cold tolerance in citrus. This requires availability of genes
 that can be used in genetic transformation for improving cold tolerance in Citrus. To
 isolate such genes, cDNA libraries were previously constructed from Cit. and NA.
Persea inflata. Differential screening of these libraries yielded a few cold-related
 genes including pICORa113, pICORa115, pICORa236, pICORa410, pICORa322
 and pICORa218 (Cao et al. 1993). In the present study, more cold regulated genes were
 identified by construction and sequencing of subtractive cDNA libraries from cold-

acclimated and nonacclimated *Passera* seedlings. Cold acclimation of these genets was demonstrated by expression analysis using several microarray and northern blot analyses on acclimated and nonacclimated *Passera*.

Materials and Methods

Plant Materials

Seeds were extracted from *Passera triflora* cv. *Balsamum* from grown in the experimental meadow of the Horticultural Science Department at the University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. The seeds were planted in a soilless medium in 2" x 18" "seeders" in beds of twenty and seedlings were grown and maintained in the greenhouse.

Cold Acclimation for Library Construction

One-year-old seedlings with two-month-old floras were transferred from the greenhouse to a controlled environment growth chamber for two weeks under a 14-h light/10-h dark photoperiod at 20°C. Control plants were maintained under the same conditions. For cold acclimation, plants were transferred to another growth chamber equipped with low temperature control managed by the QCL140 Precision Temperature Measurement and Control System (Gallagher Engineering, Gainesville, Florida) which measures the chamber temperature with 12 thermocouples at different locations in the chamber. These plants were maintained at 4°C under a 14-h light/10-h-dark photoperiod for 2 d.

Environmental Stress Treatments for Gene Expression Study

Two million-containing 40 plants of two-year-old *Passera* and *parviflora* with two-month-old floras were then transferred from the greenhouse to a controlled environment growth chamber and maintained there for two weeks with 14-h light/10-h-dark photoperiod

28°C. After leaf samples were collected from *Pinus* and *populus* plants for nonacclimated and acclimated controls, they were subjected to cold-acclimation and dehydration treatments. For cold acclimation, 20 plants from each species were transferred to another growth chamber equipped with the same free temperature control system as described above. The plants were maintained at 4°C under 16-h light/8 h dark photoperiod for seven days. Leaf tissue samples were collected from all of these plants following 1 h, 4 h, 8 h, 24 h, 2 d, 4 d, and 7 d of cold acclimation at 4°C. For dehydration, 20 plants from each *Pinus* and *populus* were maintained in the controlled environment growth chamber with 16-h light/8 h dark photoperiod at 28°C without irrigation for one week. After one week, water continued to be withheld from the plants and the water content of the soil in each pot was measured with a time domain reflectometry (TDR) probe. Leaf tissue samples were collected and pooled from at least four different plants with the same water content at specific time points of 7 d, 9 d, 11 d, 13 d and 15 d following dehydration. All tissue samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at - 80°C until use.

Isolation of RNA

Poly A⁺ RNA was isolated from leaf samples collected from at least ten individual nonacclimated and cold-acclimated plants obtained from two independent cold treatment experiments using the Pure Link 2.0 Kit for isolation of mRNA (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA was isolated from leaf samples collected and pooled from at least ten individual nonacclimated and cold-acclimated plants obtained from another independent cold treatment experiment using Trizol (Gibco BRL, Rockville, MD) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Construction of the Subtractive Library

Forward and reverse subtracted cDNA libraries were constructed with 2 µg of Poly A⁺ RNA from 2 d cold-acclimated and warm-acclimated *Panorpa viridipennis* using a PCR-select cDNA Subtraction Kit (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Figure 3-1). Subtracted cDNAs were amplified and cloned into the pT-ADV TA cloning vector using the Advantage PCR Cloning Kit (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA). Plasmids were isolated from selected clones using a 96-well plate plasmid purification kit (QIAzol, Hilden, Germany).

Sequence analysis

Rapidly chosen cDNA clones from forward and reverse subtracted libraries were sequenced using universal primers. Nucleotide sequences and deduced amino acid sequences of these clones were compared against the Genbank database using BLASTN and BLASTX, respectively.

Reverse Northern Blot Analysis of Subtracted cDNAs

cDNA clones and two negative controls (18 and 28 sequences from the human genome provided with the PCR-select cDNA Subtraction Kit (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA), were amplified by PCR using NP1 (5'- TCGAGCGGCGCGCCGCGCAGCTT-3') and NP2 (3'-ACGCTCTGTCGCGGAGCGAGG-5') primers complementary to regions flanking both sides of the cDNA inserts and Advantage DNA Polymerase Ibis. A PCR reaction was performed at 94°C for 10 s, 95°C for 30 s, and 68°C for 3 min for 23 cycles according to manufacturer's instruction (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA). In addition, two previously characterized cold-induced genes, *cut11* (Genbank accession number: U74002) and *cut19* (Genbank accession number: U74004), and a constitutively expressed

split gene encoding 3' strand of ribosomal ATP synthase from *Paracoccus cryptus* (GenBank accession number: A17549F) were amplified using gene specific primers as positive and internal controls, respectively. PCR products of cDNAs and controls were digested with 1.4 U *Not*CI and *Hinf*I and inserted into a Hybrid 5' nylon membrane (Amersham, Biosciences) using a Bio-Gel Microfiltration Apparatus (Bio-Rad, Richmond, CA) according to the manual. The entire process was repeated to produce two identical copies of each blot.

The duplicate blots were pre-hybridized with PerfectHyb buffer (Sigma, St. Louis) with 2.1 mg/ml denatured salmon sperm DNA at 45°C for one hour and hybridized with ³²P-labeled single-strand cDNA probes produced by reverse transcription of 250 ng poly A⁺ RNA isolated from cold and non-exhausted plants with an oligo-dT primer at 45°C for 16 h. Blots were washed twice with 2 X SSC, 0.5% SDS at 45°C for 20 min, followed by two washes with 0.2 X SSC 0.2% SDS at 65°C for 20 min each. Blots were then exposed to a phosphor screen for 16 h, scanned by the storm phosphor-imaging system (Amersham, Uppsala, Sweden) and quantitated using ImageQuant (Amersham, Uppsala, Sweden). Reverse southern blots were repeated three times using cDNA probes prepared from poly A⁺ RNA samples of two independent experiments.

Data Analysis

Data was collected from two independent reverse southern blot hybridizations containing all cDNA samples and controls on duplicate membranes each containing two spots of the each individual sample. Values of duplicate spots for each individual sample were determined after background subtraction. Since the reverse southern blot hybridizations were done on multiple membranes at different times and the experiment

was repeated three times, values for each sample were normalized using ATP (phosphorus) concentration as the constitutive control in order to compare the data sets. Normalization was done by dividing the values of each sample with the value of the constitutive control on the same blot. The ratio of the normalized data for individual genes in cold-acclimated and non-acclimated plants was used to determine fold induction of each clone. Log₂ values of the normalized data were then used to determine the statistical difference in expression of each clone with cold and non-acclimated probes by a *t*-test. Clones showing more than a 3-fold change in expression and $p \leq 0.05$ were considered to be cold-regulated.

Northern Blot Hybridization

Total RNA samples from cold-acclimated and non-acclimated *Pinus* and *Juniperus* plants were separated on a denaturing agarose gel, transferred to a nylon membrane and prehybridized for 30 min and hybridized with Digoxigenin (DIG)-labeled DNA probes prepared by PCR labeling or TEG-labeled uncrossed RNA probes prepared by *in vitro* transcription at 35°C (for DNA probes) or 48°C (for RNA probes) for 16 h according to the DIG Application Manual for Filter Hybridization (Boehringer-Mannheim, Germany). The membrane was washed two times with 2 X SSC and 0.1% SDS at room temperature for 5 min, followed by two washes with 0.1 X SSC and 0.1% SDS at 35°C (for DNA probes) or 48°C (for RNA probes) for 15 min and subjected to DIG-labeled DNA probes or DIG-labeled RNA probes to detect RNA targets on a northern blot using the DIG Clonase/Amersham Detection Kit (Boehringer-Mannheim, Germany). Membranes were also hybridized with an 18S ribosomal RNA (rRNA)-probe for loading and transfer control.

Results

To identify cold-regulated genes in *P. avicula*, several well-forward subcloned cDNA libraries were prepared using cold-acclimated and nonacclimated *P. avicula* seedlings. PCR amplification of selected clones demonstrated that the libraries contained fragments ranging from 150 to 1000 bp. A total of 193 randomly picked colonies, 136 from forward (clone number starting with C, cold-induced) and 56 from reverse (clone number starting with N, cold-repressed) subcloned libraries were sequenced. The nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences were compared using BLASTN and BLASTX, respectively. The sequence analysis revealed that a number of cDNA clones showed homology to previously characterized cold response genes in other plants including Arabidopsis, tobacco, tomato, and potato. Cold response genes identified in this study have homology to different groups of genes, including transcription factors and DNA binding proteins, heat shock proteins, late embryogenesis proteins and some metabolic genes (Table 1-4).

To study differential expression in cold-acclimated and nonacclimated plants, these cDNA clones were analyzed by reverse northern blot hybridization. Two previously characterized cold-induced genes from *P. avicula*, *cor11* and *cor18*, and two nonhomologous genes from the tomato genome were included as the blot as positive and negative controls, respectively, to confirm the reliability of reverse northern analysis. In addition, a housekeeping gene, chloroplast ATP synthase from *P. avicula*, whose expression is not affected by cold acclimation, was also included as an internal control to compare and analyze different blots. Reverse northern blot analysis showed that expression of both COR genes was strongly induced by cold acclimation as expected, but their expression was minimal in the non-acclimated-control. On the other hand, no

Figure 3-2. Differential screening of forward and reverse subcloned cDNA libraries of yeast subcloned *P. carolinensis* by reverse northern analysis. PCR-amplified cDNAs from forward and reverse subcloned libraries were spotted onto duplicate filters. Blots were hybridized differentially with 32 P-labeled anti-sense and sense subcloned cDNA probes. The Roman numerals indicate the duplicate blots. Capital letters and numbers are used for rows and columns, respectively to identify the location of individual cDNAs in each blot. The location of the water control, control cDNA positive controls, IR and OR negative controls and the ATP synthase constitutive control are indicated by black, red, blue and green boxes, respectively. Both H-II-control cDNAs only from the forward subcloned library. The H-IV-control cDNA only from the reverse subcloned library. In blot IV, rows A, C and E G-control cDNAs from forward subcloned library, but rows D and H-control cDNAs from the reverse subcloned library.







	Cell Authored	Not Authored
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
I	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
II	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
III	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
IV	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
V	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	A  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	B  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	C  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	D  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	E  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Table S-1 Summary of univariate and regression analysis of colistin-resistant genes identified from wild salmonid *Paratuberculosis* (CPLA). Minimum Significance of gene expression (fold) was determined by a 1-fold \log_2 $p < 0.05$

Gene/Genes	Sequence no. (nucleotides)	GenBank/RefSeq	R ² (n=1)	Gene expression ^a	Gene expression ^b
Colistin resistance					
16	166-171	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.36	16	1000
17	180-177	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.34	4	1000
18	174-181	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.33	7	1000
19	178-185	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.31	25	1000
20	176-183	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.31	13	1000
21	176-183	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.31	1	10000
Col. resistance, defense, cell stress and signaling					
22	179-186	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.41	0	1000
23	181-188	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.40	18	10000
24	184-191	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.40	18	10000
25	178-185	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.41	11	1000
26	180-187	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.40	13	1000
27	176-183	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.40	13	1000
28	178-185	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.41	11	1000
29	176-183	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.41	1	1000
30	182-189	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.40	0	1000
31	181-188	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.40	13	1000
32	179-186	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.41	1	1000
33	181-188	Colistinase gene (Colistinase domain)	0.41	0	1000
Colicin resistance and other resistance					
34	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
35	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
36	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
37	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
38	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
39	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
40	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
41	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
Resistance					
42	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
43	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
44	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
45	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
46	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
47	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
48	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
49	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
50	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
51	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
52	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
53	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
54	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
55	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
56	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
57	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
58	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
59	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
60	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
61	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
62	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
63	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
64	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
65	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
66	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
67	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
68	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
69	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
70	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
71	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
72	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
73	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
74	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
75	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
76	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
77	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
78	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
79	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
80	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
81	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
82	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
83	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
84	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
85	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
86	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
87	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
88	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
89	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
90	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
91	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
92	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
93	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
94	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
95	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
96	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
97	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
98	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
99	181-188	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000
100	179-186	Colicinase gene (Colicinase domain)	0.41	13	1000

expression of the human genes, 18 and 28, was detected. Although no difference was observed in the level of expression of ATP synthase, notable differences were observed in the expression levels of most cDNAs from the forward subtracted library in the cold-acclimated and nonacclimated hosts (Figure 3-7).

Statistical analysis of the reverse Northern blots demonstrated that 37 of 152 clones showed differential expression in cold-acclimated and nonacclimated *Arabidopsis*. Differential expression of cDNAs was detected by fold changes in their expression in two independent experiments and confirmed with *t*-tests ($p < 0.05$). Among the 37 cold-regulated cDNA clones, 36 were induced in only one cDNA, was repressed by cold acclimation. Of the 36 cold-induced cDNAs, 74 showed homology with genes with known functions in plants or other organisms. However, 20 cDNAs showed homology with genes of unknown function; we did not show homology with any previously sequenced genes in Genbank. The expression level of the cold-induced genes ranged from two to 45-fold, indicating that different cDNAs were induced at different levels. Two of the genes identified in this study were identical to previously identified cold response genes in *Arabidopsis*, *cor11* and *cor15a*, indicating that our subtractive library and reverse Northern analysis functioned properly to identify cold-inducible genes. Newly identified cold-inducible genes in *Arabidopsis* showed homology to cold-regulated genes encoding functional proteins in *Arabidopsis* and other plants including heat-shock proteins, abundant proteins (LEA), heat shock proteins, dehydrins, and those involved in signal transduction, cell defense, metabolism, transport functions, and cellular responses. In addition, cDNAs showing homology with previously identified transcription factors involved in environmental stress response in *Arabidopsis* such as

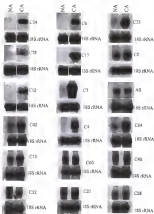
MYC, zinc finger, BANY-like, WRKY, and AP2 domain containing proteins were identified in *Pinus banksia*. The complete list of cold-induced genes and their possible functions are shown in Table 3-1. The expression level of the cold-induced gene was induced 3-fold during cold acclimation. This gene did not show homology with a protein of known function (Table 3-1).

To confirm differential expression of cold-regulated genes identified by reverse northern analysis, 17 cold-induced cDNAs including C1, C1, C4, C5, C12, C13, C17, C18, C22, C23, C28, C31, C34, C36, C42, C43, C49, and C58 were selected for northern blot analysis. Total RNA from two-day cold-acclimated and nonacclimated plants was analyzed for expression of these genes and ATP synthase using gene specific probes. Northern blot analysis demonstrated that all cold-induced genes were expressed differently in cold-acclimated and nonacclimated plants. The difference in the expression of cold-inducible genes was not due to differential amounts of RNA or experimental variation since the 18S-RNA was similar and no significant change in expression of ATP synthase was observed in both cold-acclimated and nonacclimated plants.

In northern blot analysis C1, which is homologous to the previously characterized *cor15b* gene in *Pinus banksia*, showed the highest level of expression. This result was consistent with reverse northern analysis where its expression increased 49 fold in cold-acclimated plants. A number of other cDNAs including C12, C36, C37, C38, C39, C44, C46, C52, C53, C4, and C49 showed little or no expression in nonacclimated plants; however, their expression levels were highly induced in 2-3 cold-acclimated plants (Figure 3-2). High levels of expression of these genes in northern blot were consistent with their fold induction in reverse northern blot analysis. On the other hand, expression

Figure 3-5 Northern blot analysis of selected cDNAs from the cold-induced library

Total RNA from 2 d cold acclimated (CA) and nonacclimated (NA) *Proctora* seedlings were separated on a denaturing agarose gel and blotted onto a nylon membrane. Blots were hybridized with DIG-labeled cDNA probes specific for individual genes followed by DIG-labeled HRP probe for loading and transfer control. The cDNAs show homology with gene encoding following proteins: C4 *RAV-like* protein, C7 *RPM2* (see Figure 3-6) protein, C12 *MDP* protein, C42 *Indole-3-pyruvate*, C13 *Pinus Bristlecone*, C10 *Fist. strob.* protein, C9 *Chl* *ChlH* *Rapeseed* protein, C11 *AP3 dicot* protein, C07 *Cardi* *homolog* *chickadee*, C24 *Unknown* protein, C05 *Peromyscus* *membrane* protein, C14 *ADP* *nitrate*, C16 *LEA* *homolog* protein, C08 *ABT1* *transport* protein, A8 *ATP* *synthase*, C06 *Islet* *homolog* *chickadee*, C03 *Aspartate* *Decarboxylase*, C26 *Unknown* protein.



of some cDNAs including C10, C11, and C18 were detected in nonacclimated and cold acclimated plants by northern blot analysis, but expression of these cDNAs was slightly higher under cold acclimation. Although differences in expression can be detected under different conditions, levels of expression were not correlated with three fold induction in reverse northern blot analysis. Only one cDNA, C17, which was induced only three-fold in reverse northern blot, showed little expression in nonacclimated plants, but very high expression in cold-acclimated plants in northern blot.

Among the cold induced genes, C12, which is homologous to a 4-22F transcription factor from *Arabidopsis*, was selected for further study. This cDNA was induced 24 fold in reverse northern blot analysis, and its expression was confirmed by northern blot analysis in 2 fold acclimated and nonacclimated *Pinus* plants. C12 expression at different time points following cold and drought treatments was studied in cold-hardy *Pinus* and cold sensitive pine. Northern blot analysis revealed that in cold-hardy *Pinus*, expression of this gene was induced at 4 h, reached peak level at 2 d, and remained at this high level at 7 d of cold acclimation (Figure 3-6). On the other hand, only slight induction of expression was observed in cold sensitive pine in response to cold starting at 4 h of cold acclimation. Based on northern blot analysis, the level of expression and induction of C12 by cold was insignificant in pine compared to expression in *Pinus*. When expression of C12 was studied in hybridized *Pinus* and pineapple seedlings, no significant changes in expression of C12 were observed, indicating that expression of C12 is only induced in response to cold, but not dehydration.

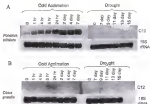


Figure 3-4 Northern blot analysis of C12 expression in response to environmental stress. (A) Expression of C12 in response to cold acclimation and drought in *Picea canadensis* detected by consensus C12-labeled riboprobe. (B) Expression of C12 mRNA in response to cold acclimation and dehydration (drought) in *Pinus strobus* detected by consensus C12-labeled riboprobe. The type of environmental stress treatment and the duration of the treatment are indicated above each blot. The expression of 18S rDNA was used as a loading and transfer control and is shown below the expression of the specific gene.

Discussion

It has been shown that cold hardness is a quantitative trait involving hundreds of genes. Recent developments in genomic techniques and their application for studying cold response in *Arabidopsis* has confirmed the quantitative nature of cold hardness by identifying several hundred cold-regulated genes (Seki et al. 2001, Seki et al. 2002, Fowler and Thomashow 2002). These studies not only identified genes, but also provided insight into the regulation of these genes in response to low temperatures. Although not to the same extent as in *Arabidopsis*, the expression of many cold-regulated genes has also been studied and characterized in other plants. Only one previous study has been done on cold-regulated genes in *Populus*, which resulted in the identification of seven cDNAs and the characterization of two genes coding for group II LER proteins (Lin et al. 1992). To identify more cold-regulated genes in *Populus*, our study used the subtractive hybridization method for construction of cold-regulated cDNA libraries.

Expression of 182 cDNAs was analyzed in cold-exposed and nonacclimated *Populus* using reverse northern blot analysis. In these experiments, several control strategies were used to ensure the reliability of results. First, materials from which RNA was isolated were pooled from at least ten randomly selected individual plants to eliminate biological variation. Thus, the changes in gene expression reflect the common response of all plants rather than the response of a single plant. Two previously identified cold-regulable genes from *Populus* were used as positive controls, and two human genes with no homology to plant genes along with a water negative control were included in expression studies by reverse northern analysis to confirm the specificity of hybridization. Expression studies were repeated at least twice with two different RNA

preparation from two independent cold acclimation experiments. Each blot contained two replicates of each cDNA sample at different locations on the blot. To eliminate experimental differences in different blots and to compare results from different experiments, expression data was normalized with an internal control, *ATP synthase beta* (*Pscv10*). In addition, expression of a number of selected genes was studied by northern blot analysis of RNA from another independent cold acclimation experiment.

Sequencing and expression analysis of a small fraction (102 clones) of the forward and reverse subtracted libraries resulted in identification of a total of 97 cold regulated cDNAs in *Picea*. These genes included two previously characterized cold response genes, *cor11* and *cor14* in *Picea* (Cao et al. 1995) and showed homology with previously identified environmental stress response genes, especially cold response genes in *Arabidopsis* (Jelts et al. 2001, Jelts et al. 2002, Fowler and Thomason 2002) and other plants including tomato, potato, rice, maize, wheat, and barley. Identification of genes homologous to previously characterized genes suggests that the subtractive hybridization and expression analysis functioned properly. Since 97 cold-regulated genes were identified from the screening of only 102 cDNAs, sequencing and expression analysis of more cDNAs from the forward and reverse subtracted libraries could result in identification of many more cold-regulated genes. This study demonstrated that construction of a subtractive library is a useful method for identification of differentially expressed genes and that this method could be used for identification and expression analysis of novel genes under different conditions in *Picea*, *Pinus* and other plants which have limited sequence information.

Cold-induced genes identified in this study share homology with genes involved in a variety of cellular functions ranging from transcription to transport facilitators. The majority of genes reported here and their functions are similar to cold-induced genes identified in *Arabidopsis* by microarray analysis (Seki et al. 2000; Seki et al. 2002; Parker and Thomashow 2002). As in *Arabidopsis* and other plants, cold-induced genes in *Pinus* can be divided into two groups, genes encoding regulatory and functional proteins. Regulatory proteins are involved in cellular communication, signal transduction, and regulation of gene expression. A number of genes showing homology to transcription factors such as bZIP, AP2 domain, MYB-like, WRKY DNA-binding and zinc finger proteins regulated expression of cold regulated genes as well as glucose rich RNA binding proteins were identified. Although the number of genes encoding regulatory proteins is limited in *Pinus* compared to *Arabidopsis*, the presence of these cold responsive transcription factors in *Arabidopsis* and *Pinus* indicates that similar regulatory pathways are activated during cold acclimation. Since we identified genes induced at 7 d of cold acclimation and only a limited number of cDNAs was analyzed, gene expression studies at different time points and sequencing and expression analysis of more cDNAs from the cold induced library may result in the identification of more regulatory proteins.

Genes encoding functional proteins such as late embryogenesis abundant proteins (LEA), heat shock proteins, sugar metabolism and oxidative stress related proteins identified in this study may be involved in cold tolerance. LEA proteins stabilize membranes and proteins through desiccation or desiccation tolerance, thus, they protect the integrity of cell (Cline 1996 1997, Watanabe et al. 1999). We identified several

cDNA in *Pinus* showing homology to LHA proteins in different plants indicating that *Pinus* is expressing a similar group of genes during cold acclimation to adapt to the changes imposed by low temperature. Heat shock proteins (HSP's) act as chaperones to stabilize the proteins by refolding the denatured proteins and preventing protein aggregation (Yang et al. 2001). In response to stress conditions, HSPs are needed more and their their expression increases in stressed plants. Two different HSPs were identified in response to cold stress in *Pinus* which were also cold-induced in other plants. Superin are involved in autoregulation by increasing intracellular cationic potential and act as cryoprotectants by protecting cell membranes and proteins (Jag 1999, Crow et al. 1999, Crow et al. 1993). Expression of super isopenten, such as between carotenoid glucose-6-phosphate/phosphate-translocator and enzymes involved in sugar metabolism, such as fructose biphosphate cleavage and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase were increased in cold-treated *Pinus*. Cold stress also increases active oxygen species (AOG) which causes oxidative stress in the cell. Glutathione S-transferase (GST) is a detoxification enzyme and may have role in protecting cells from oxidative stress. Expression of GST was reported to be induced in response to cold treatment to alleviate the effect of AOG in the cell (Seymour et al. 2000). A cDNA homologous to GST showed increased expression in cold-acclimated *Pinus*, suggesting that detoxification of AOG is being used by *Pinus* to cope with oxidative stress-induced by cold treatment.

Changes in protein expression, stability and turnover were observed in response to cold treatment in plants. ATP dependent Clp protease and ubiquitin conjugating enzyme are involved in removal of damaged or misfolded proteins as well as turnover of specific

proteins to control the metabolic and developmental processes (Bachmann 1993; Wanner 1994). These two proteins were isolated during cold acclimation of *Populus* and *Arabidopsis* (Joka et al. 2002; Zhang et al. 2002). There is a relationship between cold response and ABA level where ABA levels increased in response to low temperature in plants (Lee et al. 1992; Ling et al. 1994), and exogenous application of ABA increased the freezing tolerance of many plants (Ge et al. 1998; Maheshwari et al. 1998). Therefore, increased expressions of genes involving ABA biosynthesis and ABA signaling pathway were reported. *Nicotianic acid pyruvate decarboxylase* (NACD), a key enzyme in ABA biosynthesis which catalyzes the conversion of *Nicotianic acid pyruvate* to *Nicotianic acid* (Joka et al. 2001), was isolated by cold in *Populus*. In addition, a MYC transcription factor was identified as a cold-responsive gene in this study. Since the MYC transcription factor induces gene expression through an element that includes the ABA response element (ARE) (Jalaly et al. 2002), increased expression of these genes indicates that an ABA-dependent pathway is activated during cold acclimation in *Populus*. Ethylene is also increased when plants are exposed to cold. In this study, a cDNA sharing homology to 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) oxidase, which is responsible for converting ACC to ethylene, was increased in cold-acclimated *Populus*. In addition, increased expression of a ripening-related protein was observed in *Populus* following short-cold response and ethylene response pathways may interact. Polyamines (PA)s commonly found in plants and their levels are increased in response to stress conditions, such as low temperature. Arginine decarboxylase (ADC) is the key enzyme involved in the synthesis of PAs and expression of the gene encoding ADC increased in response to environmental stresses including cold (Mo and Fan 2002).

We found that expression of *AEC* was increased during cold treatment in *Physalis* and a similar result was reported in *Arabidopsis* (Seki et al. 2002).

Northern blot analysis of expression of a number of selected genes identified by reverse northern blot hybridization confirmed that these genes were all induced in response to 2 d cold treatment in *Physalis*. This shows that the reverse northern blot analysis and statistical analysis performed in this study were effective methods for identification of cold-regulated genes. An expression study of one *sDNA* cDNA, possibly encoding a bZIP transcription factor in cold hardy and cold sensitive species showed that the expression of this gene is gradually increased and reached peak level at 2 d in response to cold. However, no change in expression was observed in response to drought. This result not only revealed the expression pattern of potentially important regulatory gene, but also suggested that genes selected by reverse northern analysis in this study are likely to be cold-regulated.

Identification of a number of cold regulated genes in this study indicated that although only a fraction of the forward and reverse subtracted libraries were sequenced and analyzed, we identified a number of genes significantly up-regulated during cold acclimation. However, only one down-regulated gene was identified. This may be due to the lack of down-regulated genes in response to low temperature in *Physalis* or to increasing of a limited number of clones. Since we analyzed expression of only 56 cDNAs from reverse subtracted library (response to 13d-cold induced), the number of cDNAs was limited. Microarray studies with 7000 and 8000 cDNAs showed that a majority (70%) of cold-regulated genes was induced in response to cold in *Arabidopsis*. However, only 3% of them were repressed in response to cold indicating that the

number of genes induced by cold is much higher than the expected ones. Therefore, it is likely that analysis of limited number of down and down-regulated of fewer genes in response to cold in plants contributed to identification of a single down-regulated gene in *P. marmoratus*.

Piscineae

CHAPTER 4 ISOLATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF COLD INDUCED PUTATIVE TRANSCRIPTION FACTORS IN *Perilla frutescens* (L.)-Rat

Introduction

During cold acclimation, a series of physiological and biochemical changes take place in plants which results from induction of specific gene expression (Day, 1990). Expression analysis of cold responsive genes has revealed that several hundreds of genes are induced during cold acclimation in *Arabidopsis* (Seki et al., 2002, 2003; Hwang and Thomason 2003). These studies indicate have identified cold-induced genes are involved in a variety of different cellular functions, including transcription, metabolism, protein fold, transport, localization, biogenesis, cellular communication and signal transduction, cell growth and division, cell death and aging (Seki et al., 2004 and 2005, Fowler and Thomason 2003; Hwang et al., 2003). Further characterization of cold-induced genes demonstrated that some of these genes encode functional proteins involved in increased biosynthesis of compatible solutes (Jalavisto and Hiltunen 2002), alteration of lipid composition and membrane structure (Pridmore and Muris 1994), increased levels of antioxidant activity (Jin 2002), as well as biosynthesis of stress hormones, all of which lead to an increase in cold tolerance. Additionally, some cold-induced genes encode regulatory proteins involved in signal transduction and regulation of gene expression during cold acclimation.

Since physiological and biochemical changes during cold acclimation are associated with changes in gene expression, transcriptional regulation of cold responsive

genes has been explored for a better understanding of cold response pathways and improving cold tolerance in plants. Expression of a number of transcription factors on DNA binding posture increases during cold treatment of *Arabidopsis* and other plants. Most of these transcription factors contain conserved DNA binding domains found in eukaryotes such as a basic-leucine zipper (bZIP), basic-helix-loop-helix (bHLH), RING zinc finger, zinc finger, MYB home-box, MADS box, as well as AP2/ERF, AP3/ERF and WRKY DNA-binding motifs found in plants (Kang et al. 1999; Chen et al. 2002; Sato et al. 2004; DRL, Flower and Thomashow 2007; Salazar et al. 2008).

One of the most important research developments in cold acclimation and cold response in plants was identification of the CBF/DREB1 transcription factors that regulate an ABA, independent cold response pathway in *Arabidopsis* (Stockinger et al. 1997; Gilmore et al. 1998; Lee et al. 1999). The CBF/DREB1 proteins induce expression of cold- and dehydration-regulated genes containing a C-repeat/dREB1 (C-repeat/dREB1-inducible element) (CCGAC) core sequence in their promoter region (Baker et al. 1994; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 1994). CBF/DREB1-like proteins were also identified and characterized in *Brassica napus*, a close relative of *Arabidopsis* (Jagla et al. 2001; Cho et al. 2002) and cold acclimated wheat, *Triticum aestivum* (Jagla et al. 2004), and barley (Chen et al. 2002) as well as tomato, which does not cold acclimate, (Jagla et al. 2004) indicating that the CBF/DREB1 cold response pathway is conserved among a number of plants including cold-sensitive and nonacclimating plants (Jagla et al. 2000; Cho et al. 2002).

Transcription factors containing an AP2/ERF domain belong to a plant specific transcription factor family with more than a hundred members. Based on the number of

AP2/ERF domains present in the genome. Other transcription factors are divided into two subfamilies (Kushnits and Meyerowitz 1998; Kushnits et al. 2000). The first subfamily contains transcription factors with two AP2/ERF domains, including AP2LAL1 (AP2) (Johata et al. 1994) and ANTICOLLENTA (ANT) (Ellison et al. 1993) from *Arabidopsis* and Glucanase1 (Glucanase) (Mason et al. 1994) from maize, all of which are involved in flower and seed development. The transcription factors containing only one AP2 domain include ERF, TINY, DREB1/ERF, DREB2, Pox, AER, and many more from *Arabidopsis* and other plants (Johansen et al. 2002). These transcription factors share sequence similarity only in the AP2/ERF DNA-binding domain and they function mostly in response to biotic and abiotic stresses including cold.

The other subfamily of AP2/ERF transcription factors contains one AP2/ERF and one E3 DNA-binding domain have also been identified. Two of these proteins, EAV1 and EAV2, were isolated from *Arabidopsis*. The E3 domain in these proteins shows homology to the DNA-binding domain of MYOPALNOLIN (NP1) from maize (Sewell et al. 1997) and to a domain ABF1 in *Arabidopsis* (Gonsky et al. 1992). The AP2 and E3 domains of EAV1 bind independently to CAACA and CACTG cis-elements respectively, and the presence of both domains increases the binding activity and specificity of the protein (Kang et al. 1998). Recently, it was shown that the EAV1 DNA-binding protein was induced in response to cold, suggesting that it is involved in cold induced transcriptional activation in *Arabidopsis* (Fowler and Thaler 2002).

ERF3 (Early-Induced New Gene) was finger domain containing proteins are another group of regulatory proteins. The ERF3 finger domain is involved in cold-binding and it has a cysteine rich sequence defined by the consensus sequence of

et al. 2005) and pathogen defense (Takeda et al. 2003, Gao et al. 2005) have been isolated recently and partially characterized.

Since some transmembrane proteins and other regulatory proteins are cold-induced and play important roles in cold-responsive gene expression, we selected two cDNAs showing homology with AP2/ERF family proteins and one with a RING zinc finger protein homology from a cold-induced subtracted cDNA library of 3 d cold-acclimated *Persea indica*. For further characterization, the full-length cDNAs were isolated by random amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) and expression of these genes was studied in response to cold and drought stress in *Persea* and *Citrus*.

Materials and Methods

Plant Materials

Persea indica cv. 'Rubricornis' and *Citrus grandis* cv. 'Duncan' (*Poncirus*) seeds were obtained from inflorescence bracts produced in the experimental orchard of the Horticultural Research Department at the University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida and pummelo bracts produced in the experimental orchard of University of Florida Citrus Research and Education Center in Lake Alfred, Florida, respectively. The seeds were planted in a soilless medium in 2" x 16" transplants at ratio of twenty seed seedlings per tray and maintained in the greenhouse.

Environmental Stress Treatments

Two-month-old seedling 40 plants of two-year old *Persea* and pummelo with semi-matured old leaves were first transferred from the greenhouse to a controlled environment growth chamber and maintained there for two weeks with 16 h light/8 h dark photoperiod at 25°C. After leaf samples were collected from *Persea* and pummelo plants for non-methylated and non-methylated controls, they were subjected to cold acclimation and

dehydration treatments. For cold acclimation, 20 plants from each species were transferred to another growth chamber equipped with low temperature control managed by the QTC/CM5 Precision Temperature Measurement and Control System (Gallney Engineering, Gainesville, Florida). The plants were maintained at 4°C under 10-h light/16-h dark photoperiod for seven days. Leaf tissue samples were collected from all of these plants at 1 h, 4 h, 1 h, 24 h, 7 d, 4 d, and 7 d of cold acclimation at 4°C. For dehydration, 20 plants from each *Penstemon* and *gracilis* were maintained in the controlled environment growth chamber with 10-h light/16-h dark photoperiod at 20°C without irrigation for one week. After one week, water continued to be withheld from the plants and the water content of the soil in each pot was measured with a capacitance reflectometer (TDR) probe. Leaf tissue samples were collected from at least four different plants with the same water content at specific time points of 7 d, 9 d, 11 d, 13 d and 15 d of dehydration. All tissue samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use.

Isolation of RNA

Total RNA was isolated from the various leaf samples using Trizol Reagent (Gibco-BRL, Rockville, MD) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA concentration was determined spectrophotometrically and the samples were stored at -80°C until used.

Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends (RACE)

The partial sequences of the selected cold-induced cDNAs were used for designing reverse and forward primers to obtain the 5' and 3' ends of the full-length cDNAs, respectively. Total RNA from 7-d cold-acclimated *Penstemon* seedlings was used as

template for generating the 5' and 3' RACE ready cDNAs for PCR amplification. The RACE ready cDNAs were used with gene specific reverse and forward primers to obtain 5' and 3' end sequences of the specific genes. All steps of RACE were performed using the Smart RACE-cDNA Amplification Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA).

Sequence Analysis

The partial sequences of cold-induced cDNAs obtained from the subtractive library and the 5' and 3' sequences obtained from RACE were assembled and aligned to determine full-length sequences. The assembled sequences were analyzed for open reading frames using Vector NTI suite (JaberMax, Frederick, MD). The full-length cDNA sequences and the deduced amino acid sequences were then compared with previously characterized DNA and protein sequences in GenBank. The conserved domains within the protein sequences of cold-induced cDNAs were determined by a conserved domain search and compared with proteins containing the same or similar domain(s).

Northern Blot Hybridization

Total RNA samples from environmental stress-treated and control *Pinus taeda* and *Populus* plants were separated on denaturing agarose gels and transferred to nylon membranes. The membranes were prehybridized at 68°C for 30 min and hybridized with DIG-labeled antisense RNA probes specific to the 3' end of the individual genes prepared using α -DIG RNA labeling kit (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany) at 68°C for 14 h. The membranes were then washed two times with 2 X SSC and 0.1% SDS at room temperature for 5 min, followed by two washes with 0.1 X SSC and 0.1% SDS at

40°C for 15 min and subjected to detection of (DIG) labeled RNA probes as below RNA targets as northern blot using the DIG-Clonetechnology Detection Kit (Boehringer-Mannheim, Germany). After hybridization with gene specific probes, the membranes were also hybridized with an (DIG)-labeled RNA (rRNA) probe for loading and transfer control.

Reverse Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)

cDNA was synthesized from 1-5 µg total RNA by Superscript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) using oligo-dT primer according to manufacturer's instructions. PCR amplification was conducted in a 50 µl reaction mixture containing PCR buffer (50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1% Triton X-100), 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.4 mM dNTPs, 50 pmole/gene specific primers, 1.2 U Taq DNA polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI) and 1 µl cDNA template. The amplification reaction was carried out in a PTC-100 Thermocycler (MJ Research, Waltham, MA). The thermocycler was programmed at 94°C for 3 min (initial denaturation for one cycle and 25 or 35 cycles at 94°C for 30 s denaturation, 55°C for 30 s primer annealing, 72°C for 1 min primer extension followed by one cycle of final primer extension at 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were separated in 1.5% agarose gel by electrophoresis in TBE buffer (0.5 M Tris-Boric, 0.5 M EDTA, pH 8.0, 12.0% glycerol w/v v/v). Products were stained with ethidium bromide and visualized and photographed under UV light using the ES-100 digital gel imaging system (Alpha Innotech, San Leandro, CA).

Results

Cold-Induced PI-BOS cDNA from *Penstemon brevidens* an AP2 Domain-Containing Protein

The partial cDNA sequence of PI-BOS (C1.7) was isolated from a subtractive cDNA library of 3 d cold-anesthetized *Penstemon*. Reverse northern analysis revealed that PI-BOS showed three-fold induction in response to cold and partial deduced amino acid sequences of this cDNA showed homology with AP2 domain-containing proteins from other plants. Since a number of AP2 domain-containing proteins are involved in environmental stress, PI-BOS may be important for understanding cold response in *Penstemon*. The full-length sequence of PI-BOS cDNA was obtained using 3' and 5' RACE. This cDNA was 1278 bp in length, consisting of a 198 bp 5'-untranslated region (5'UTR), a complete open reading frame (ORF) of 1044 bp encoding a polypeptide of 348 amino acids, followed by a 3' UTR of 147 bp (Figure 4-1).

Alignment of the protein encoded by this full-length cDNA sequence with other homologous proteins is shown in Figure 4-2. The multiple sequence alignment demonstrated that PI-BOS shares significant sequence homology with previously identified cold and pathogen AP2 domain-containing proteins from different plants. The most conserved region of the protein was between amino acids 115-143, which contains the AP2 DNA binding domain. Sequence alignment of the AP2 domain from PI-BOS and the other plant proteins showed that the AP2 domain of PI-BOS was almost identical to the structural sequence of AP2 domains (Figure 4-3), indicating that PI-BOS probably contains a functional AP2 DNA binding domain.

The expression of PI-BOS in cold-anesthetized and nonanesthetized *Penstemon* and *penstemon* was studied by northern blot analysis to determine the expression pattern of this



Figure 4.1 Full-length sequence of *P. foveatus* cDNA FI-B06. A) The map of the full-length cDNA sequence showing open reading frame and the 5' and 3' untranslated regions. B) The full-length cDNA sequence and the predicted translation of the FI-B06 open reading frame. The conserved sequences are shown in the top of the cDNA sequence.

genes in two closely related species with cold-hardy and cold-sensitive phenotypes.

Northern blot analysis revealed that in cold-hardy *Paniceum*, expression of this gene was induced at 1 h, reached peak levels at 2 d and remained at that high level following 4 d of cold acclimation, but decreased after 7 d of cold acclimation (Figure 4-4). However, only a small increase in expression was observed in cold-sensitive panicle in response to cold starting at 1 d of cold acclimation remained relatively unchanged over the time points tested. Based on northern blot analysis, the level of expression and induction of *Pt-BGL* by cold was insignificant in panicle compared to expression in *Paniceum*. When expression of *Pt-BGL* was studied in dehydrated *Paniceum* and panicle seedlings, no significant changes in expression of *Pt-BGL* were observed, indicating that *Pt-BGL* is only induced in response to cold, but not dehydration.

Cold-Induced *Pt-C18* cDNA from *Paniceum Canadense* a RAV-Like Protein with two Different DNA-Binding Domains

Recent northern analysis of the partial cDNA sequence of *Pt-C18* (C. Li) showed an 11-fold induction and partial deduced amino acid sequence of this cDNA showed homology with the RAV-like protein from Arabidopsis. Since RAV and RAV-Like possess distinct two different DNA binding domains and it was shown that RAV-Like induced in response to cold in Arabidopsis. *Pt-C18* may be involved in cold responsive gene regulation in *Paniceum*. The full-length sequence of *Pt-C18* cDNA was obtained by 5' and 3' RACE using gene specific primers obtained from partial cDNA sequence. The full-length *Pt-C18* cDNA was 1346 bp, consisting of a 157bp 5' UTR, a complete ORF of 1179bp encoding a polypeptide of 377 amino acids, followed by a 3' UTR of 204 bp (Figure 4-5).

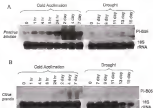


Figure 4-4 Northern blot analysis of expression of PI 80S cDNA in response to environmental stresses. **A)** Expression of PI 80S cDNA in response to cold acclimation and drought, in *Pseudotsuga jeffersonii* detected by antisense (28S)-labeled cDNA. **B)** Expression of PI 80S cDNA in response to cold acclimation and dehydration (drought) in *Pinus strobus* detected by antisense (28S)-labeled cDNA. The type environmental stress treatment and the duration of the treatment are indicated at the top. The expression of 18S rDNA, used as a loading and transfer control, is shown below the expression of the specific gene.

Sequence analysis revealed that the protein sequence encoded by the cDNA shared sequence similarity with RAV1, RAV2, RAV3-like, and RAV4 proteins from *Arabidopsis*. Multiple alignment of PI-C10 with these proteins presented in Figure 4-6 showed that this protein is highly homologous to this group of proteins encoding transcription factors, some of which are involved in cold responsive gene expression. PI-C10 showed high sequence identity in four different regions of RAV and RAV-like proteins. Sequence analysis showed that two of these regions were previously characterized AP2 and B3 DNA binding domains. The AP2 and B3 domains are located towards the N terminus and C terminus of the protein, respectively (Figure 4-6). Multiple sequence alignment of AP2 and B3 domains of *Perovskia* PI-C10 revealed that both domains contain conserved amino acid sequences involved in DNA-binding (Figure 4-7) indicating that PI-C10 may have two functional DNA-binding domains.

To determine the expression pattern of this gene in two closely related species with cold-tolerant and cold-sensitive phenotypes, the expression of PI-C10 in cold-acclimated and nonacclimated *Perovskia* and *perovskia* was studied by northern blot analysis. Expression of this gene was induced at 4 h and reached its highest level at 2 d, while it began declining starting at 4 d of cold acclimation in cold-tolerant *Perovskia* (Figure 4-8). However, no expression was detected in response to cold in cold-sensitive, *perovskia* (Figure 4-8) indicating that this gene is absent or its expression is too low to detect in *perovskia* by northern blot analysis. When expression of PI-C10 was studied in dehydrated and rehydrated *Perovskia* and *perovskia* plants, no expression of PI-C10 was detected in *Perovskia* or *perovskia* (Figure 4-8) indicating that PI-C10 is only expressed in response to cold, but not dehydration.

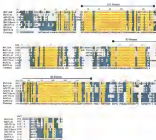


Figure 4.4 Multiple sequence alignment of predicted sense and antisense of *Picea* PI C10 cDNA with protein in GenBank showing the highest homology with PI C10. The alignment was generated using AlignX module of Vector NTI suite. The GenBank accession numbers for RAP1, AP2/ERF1 (AP2 domain transcription factor), AP2 TF3 (positive AP2 domain transcription factor), RAP2 like (RAP2-like DNA binding protein) AP2 TF3 (positive AP2 domain transcription factor) RAP2, RAP2.1 type Arabidopsis are NP_173794, AA055499, NP_187004, AA056130, NP_173871, NP_54967, AAC49774, respectively. Conserved AP2 and R2 DNA-binding domains are indicated by the line above the sequence alignment.

Since no expression of *PI-CD* was detected in *parviflorus* by northern blot analysis, RT-PCR was performed using primer sets specific to 3' and 5' regions of the full-length cDNA to determine if this gene is absent or present in *parviflorus*. RT-PCR amplification from total RNA of noncolonized *Pinus trichocarpa* and *parviflorus* plants showed that the expression of *PI-CD* was seen after 25 cycles of amplification in *Pinus trichocarpa* and expression was only detected after 35 cycles of amplification in *parviflorus*, indicating that basal expression of this gene is very low in both plants (Figure 4-8 lanes 1-2 and 3-4). When the expression of this gene was studied in 2 d cold-acclimated plants, expression of *PI-CD* was detected in both 25 and 35 cycles of PCR amplification in *parviflorus* and *Pinus trichocarpa*, indicating that the *PI-CD* isolated from *Pinus trichocarpa* is also present in *parviflorus*. However, the level of expression was significantly higher in *Pinus trichocarpa* than *parviflorus* at both 25 and 35 cycles of PCR amplification (Figure 4-8 lanes 5-6 and 7-8). These results suggested that although this gene is present in both species, its expression in response to cold acclimation of cold-hardy *Pinus trichocarpa* and cold-sensitive *parviflorus* is different.

***PI-CD* cDNA from *Pinus trichocarpa* Encodes a RING Zinc Finger Protein and is Induced in Response to Cold and Drought**

Recent northern analysis had revealed that *PI-CD* (CTD) showed a near full induction upon cold acclimation. The partial deduced amino acid sequences of this cDNA showed homology with RING zinc finger proteins from other plants. At least one RING zinc finger protein from *Arabidopsis* is reported to be induced in response to cold. Thus, to determine whether the putative *PI-CD* RING zinc finger protein might be involved in response to cold in *Pinus trichocarpa*, the partial sequence was used for isolating full-length cDNA sequence of this gene. The full-length sequence of *PI-CD* cDNA was

obtained by 5' and 3' RACE using gene specific primers. This cDNA was 1040 bp, consisting of a 120 bp 5' UTR, a complete ORF of 204 bp encoding a polypeptide of 138 amino acids, followed by a 3' UTR of 416 bp (Figure 4-8).

Sequence analysis demonstrated that the deduced amino acid sequence of the full length cDNA showed homology with RING zinc finger proteins from *Thellungiella halophila* and *Arabidopsis*. Alignment of the protein encoded by the cDNA sequence with other RING zinc finger proteins is shown in Figure 4-10. The multiple sequence alignment demonstrated that P1-CO2 shows significant sequence homology with previously characterized and/or putative RING zinc finger proteins from *Arabidopsis* and *Thellungiella halophila*. It contains a signature sequence motif for a RING zinc finger at the C terminus of the protein (Figure 4-10). The alignment of the P1-CO2 RING zinc finger domain with proteins from plants and other organisms including humans and *Drosophila* yeast containing similar domains showed that the key amino acids in this domain were conserved in P1-CO2, indicating that it might be a functional RING zinc finger protein (Figure 4-10). Since a function mutation was found in the 5' flanking sequence site of P1-CO2, this protein is likely to belong to the RING-EB2 subgroup.

The expression of P1-CO2 was studied in response to cold and drought stresses to determine the expression pattern of this gene in two closely related species, *Perovskia* and *guttieraria*. Northern blot analysis showed that expression of P1-CO2 increased incrementally starting at 1 h of cold acclimation in *Perovskia*. Although the expression level was variable at different time points, expression reached its highest level between 24 h and 1 day of cold acclimation and decreased thereafter (Figure 4-11). Expression of P1-CO2 was at a basal level between 0 and 8 h, increased between 8 to 24 h of cold

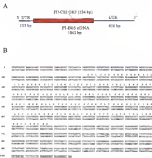


Figure 1.1 Full length sequence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* P1-COI. **A)** The map of the full-length cDNA sequence showing open reading frame and the 5' and 3' untranslated regions. **B)** The full length cDNA sequence and the predicted translation of the P1-COI open reading frame. The amino acid sequence are shown as barplot of the cDNA sequence.

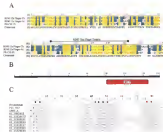


Figure 4-13 Analysis of predicted structure and sequence of *Picea* F3-CO2 cDNA. **A)** Multiple alignment of amino acid sequences F3-CO2 with other plant proteins in GenBank showing homology with F3-CO2. The GenBank accession numbers for RING-like (Fragaria LAM1967 and RAD21449) represent putative RING-like finger proteins from *Fragaria vesicularis* and *Arabidopsis thaliana*. **B)** The topology of the conserved region near finger domain in the F3-CO2 amino acid sequence deduced by ClustalW (Distant Search) in the GenBank. **C)** Multiple sequence alignments of the amino acid sequences of the conserved RING and finger domains from *Picea* F3-CO2 and other proteins containing similar domains. The conserved amino acid residues of the sequences near *F* are indicated by red arrows. The GenBank identification numbers of 36128644, G17460462, G11314871, G11830466, G11032154, G11503117, G11509449 and G115034108 represent D44426b2 Ubiquitin Protein Ligase from human, F3C2-type RING and finger from human, RING-F3 and finger putative RING-F3 type finger F3C2D1, F3-CO2-type RING and finger, D44426b2 RING and finger, putative RING-F3 type finger F3C2D1-340 and COHCA-type RING finger proteins from *Arabidopsis thaliana*.

expression and stopped in the basal level after 2 d of cold induction in potato is never reaching the levels observed in *Prostrata* (Figure 4-13). When the expression of PR-CO2 was studied in response to drought, most significant changes in gene expression were observed both in *Prostrata* and potato. In *Prostrata*, the expression of PR-CO2 was induced at 7 d and reached its highest level at 9 d of dehydration, it started to decrease at 11 d and returned the basal level at 13 d. On the other hand, in potato, the expression of PR-CO2 was induced at 7 d and reached its highest level between 9 and 11 d and started to decrease after that time. The apparent high level of expression observed at 13 d of dehydration may be due to a higher amount of RNA in that sample since the amount of 18S ribosomal RNA is also higher in that sample. These results showed that PR-CO2 encoding a putative RPD3 core target protein is induced by both cold and drought, however, the level of induction in response to drought is much higher than the cold-responsive expression.

Discussion

The gene expression studies in cold acclimated and nonacclimated *Arabidopsis* and other plants have shown that expression of several hundred genes is changed in response to cold. Genes induced in response to cold are involved in a variety of cellular functions including transcriptional regulation. A family of AP2-domain-containing transcription factors, the CBF/DREB family, first isolated from *Arabidopsis* and shown to regulate cold responsive gene expression (Guzbinger et al. 1997, Lee et al. 1998, Ohmori et al. 1994). Homologs of CBF/DREB genes were identified and isolated from several groups of plants, indicating that the CBF/DREB pathway is conserved at least among some quite disparate plants (Jaglo et al. 2001). However, the position of the CBF/DREB pathway in other plants including *Prostrata* is still unknown. In relation to

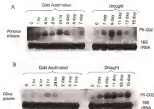


Figure 4-11 Northern blot analysis of expression of PBI-CD3 mRNA, in response to environmental stresses. **A)** Expression of PBI-CD3 mRNA, in response to cold acclimation and drought in PBI-CD3 detected by antisense PBI-CD3 labeled riboprobe. **B)** Expression of PBI-CD3 mRNA, in response to cold acclimation and drought in PBI-CD3 detected by antisense PBI-CD3 labeled riboprobe. The top horizontal stress treatment and the duration of the treatment are indicated under top. The expression of 18S rDNA, was used as a loading and transfer control is shown below the expression of the specific gene.

the CBF/DREB1a, expression of a number of other transcription factors with conserved DNA-binding domain(s) such as MYB, MYB1, zinc finger, MYB, home box, WRKY box, as well as AP2/ERF, AP2/ERF, and WRKY proteins were induced in response to cold (Kagawa et al. 1999, Chao et al. 2002) (Seki et al. 2001, 2002, Fowler and Thomashaw 2002, Sakuma et al. 2002). Expression of some of these transcription factors is controlled by CBF/DREB1a; however, the expression of other transcription factors is independent of CBF/DREB1a, indicating that pathways other than CBF/DREB1a are activated in response to cold (Fowler and Thomashaw 2002).

Three partial cDNAs, PI-B05, PI-C18 and PI-C02, showing homology to transcription factors were isolated from a cDNA library prepared from 2 d cold-estimated *Persea* inflorescence. The full-length sequences of these cDNAs were obtained by 5' and 3' RACE. Analysis of nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of genes encoded by these cDNAs revealed that PI-B05, PI-C18 and PI-C02 encode proteins containing an AP2 DNA-binding domain, AP2 and B3 DNA-binding domains, and a B3B3 zinc finger domain, respectively.

Sequence analysis of PI-B05 demonstrated that it contains an AP2 DNA-binding domain that is similar to a DNA-binding domain of previously characterized and putative proteins from Arabidopsis and other plants, including potato, tomato and rice. Since this protein contains only one AP2 domain, it can be classified along with single AP2/ERF containing proteins, including DRE1, TINY, DREB1/CBF, DREB2, Pta, and A2H (Krchavicek and Meyersowitz 1998, Bachmann et al. 2000, Sakuma et al. 2002). Cluster analysis of the conserved sequence to the AP2 domain revealed that PI-B05 is most similar to the DRE1 group of proteins because within the DREB1/CBF group, this

group contains threonine and aspartate acid residues 14 and 16, respectively. It was shown that these two amino acids in the AP2 domain determine DNA-binding specificity of proteins (Sekizawa et al. 2002). The DGEEL-DMF group contains valine and glutamate acid at positions 14 and 16, respectively and binds specifically to the C/EBP β binding element AGGCGAC. On the other hand, ERP-like proteins bind to the GCC box, containing the core AGCGGCC sequence, demonstrating that a single base change determines the specificity of these two groups of AP2/ERF proteins (Sekizawa et al. 2002). The GCC-box binding specificity of the ERF proteins ERF1 from *Arabidopsis* and ERF2 from rice, which contain DNA-binding domains highly similar to P1-B05, have been demonstrated (Allen et al. 1998, Tournier et al. 2001). The 3-dimensional structural analysis of the GCC-box binding domain of ERF1 from *Arabidopsis* with the GCC-box sequence revealed that it contains a three-stranded anti-parallel beta-sheet, and an alpha-helix packed approximately parallel to the beta-sheet. The domain recognizes the target sequence through a β -sheet structure (Allen et al. 1998). Since P1-B05 contains an AP2 domain very similar to this protein, it is likely that it has the same domain structure and binds to a GCC-box. The expression of ERF genes was differentially induced by ethylene and by abiotic stress conditions, including cold, high salinity, or drought, through G1EYLAHLE-DGEELDMFVLEL (β -DMF) dependent or (HNF)-independent pathways (Fujisawa et al. 2000). A number of AP2/ERF proteins are also involved in responses of pathogenesis related genes. Thus, a group of AP2/ERF proteins have roles in biotic and abiotic stress-induced gene regulation. Expression analysis of P1-B05 in response to cold and drought in *Periwinkle* and *potamo* demonstrated that this gene is only induced by cold in *Periwinkle*, strongly suggesting that it regulates cold-responsive gene expression in

Proteins under cold stress. Since the AP2 domain of this protein may have binding specificity to a GCC box sequence, genes regulated by this protein should contain such a GCC box regulatory sequence.

Sequence analysis of P1-C18 showed that this protein contains two different DNA binding domains, AP2 and E3, previously found in the plant transcription factors RAV1 and RAV2 from *Arabidopsis* (Kagawa et al. 1995). Searches in the sequence database identified a number of other RAV-like proteins from *Arabidopsis* and other plants. However, these genes have not been characterized. Analysis of the DNA-binding activity of RAV1 protein by gel-shift and electrophoretic mobility shift assays demonstrated that the AP2 and E3 domains independently bind to CAACA and CACTCG response motifs, respectively. The presence of two DNA-binding domains provides higher binding affinity and specificity to the RAV1 protein (Kagawa et al. 1995). Since the amino acid sequence of AP2 and E3 domains of *Pinus* P1-C18 is almost identical to the respective domains from RAV1 and RAV2 from *Arabidopsis*, it is likely that they will have the same DNA-binding activity and will bind to CAACA and CACTCG response motifs. Currently, the target genes of RAV proteins are not known, however, recent microarray studies show that at least RAV1 from *Arabidopsis* is induced in response to cold acclimation (Funder and Thomashow 2002), indicating that it is involved in regulation of cold response gene expression. Expression analysis of RAV-like P1-C18 by northern blot hybridization in this study demonstrated that it is induced only in response to cold in cold hardy *Pinus* but not in drought and no expression was detected in *pinus* in response to both cold and drought. This result confirms the suggestion that the RAV proteins are involved in cold-regulated gene expression and P1-C18 most likely regulates gene

expression specifically under cold stress in *Perovskia*. Further expression analysis of *PG-C18* by RT-PCR showed that this gene is also present in cold-sensitive mutants, however, the level of expression is significantly higher in cold-tolerant *Perovskia*. The differences observed in expression of this gene in mutants between northern blot and RT-PCR analysis may be due to the sensitivity of the two detection methods or response variations within this gene in mutants and *Perovskia*. Since hybridization stringency used in northern blot analysis allows 20% sequence variations and two different regions of *PG-C18* were amplified by PCR using two different sets of primer designed from non-overlapped regions of this gene, it is unlikely the differences are due to response variations. Thus, it is likely that the differences in expression of *PG-C18* in mutants are due to the increased sensitivity provided by RT-PCR. Since the expression signal is amplified exponentially by PCR, RT-PCR is much more sensitive than the northern blot analysis and it can detect lower amounts of RNA signal.

Database searches with the predicted amino acid sequence of *PG-C18* from *Perovskia* identified two *Arabidopsis* proteins showing high sequence identity. It also showed homology with a number of other proteins from plants and other organisms. The most similar regions of these proteins contained a RVD-like finger motif found near the C terminus suggesting that *PG-C18* is a RVD-like finger protein. The alignment of the amino acid sequences of the RVD-like finger domains shows that *PG-C18* contains key conserved amino acids in the correct positions. It also revealed that *PG-C18* has a binding motif at the fifth coordination site, suggesting that it is a member of the H2 subfamily of RVD-like finger proteins which is mostly found in plants.

ERF1 also binds protein via thought to function as transcription factors because of the presence of zinc finger motifs in their sequences. Although the exact function of most ERF1 zinc finger proteins is still unknown, recent studies with some mammalian ERF1 zinc finger proteins demonstrated that they are involved in specific ubiquitination of proteins and suggested that these proteins act as ubiquitin protein ligase- β (Hosono, 2000; Hosono and Hirakawa, 2000). Since the pathway is conserved in all eukaryotes and regulates the specific degradation of a large number of proteins involved in diverse cellular processes ranging from cell cycle regulation to stress responses (Janda and Cechinska, 1996), ERF1 zinc finger proteins may have important roles in these processes. The *Arabidopsis* genome contains a number of ERF1 zinc finger proteins (Janda et al., 1996). Although a majority of these proteins have not been characterized and no functions have been assigned to them, more and more studies are being conducted to elucidate the functions of some of these proteins. Recent characterizations of a small number of plant ERF1 zinc finger proteins revealed that they are involved in key biological processes of plants including photomorphogenesis (Tera et al., 1999), seed development (Matsuo et al., 2000; Lockton et al., 2001), pathogen defense (Takai et al., 2001; Guo et al., 2002) and cold-responsive gene expression (Lee et al., 2004). Although ubiquitin ligase activity has not been shown for any of these proteins, current data suggests that these proteins function through protein-protein interactions and the ERF1 zinc finger domain is essential for their activity (Tera et al., 1999; Matsuo et al., 2000; Lockton et al., 2001; Takai et al., 2001; Guo et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2004). ERFB1, an ERF1 zinc finger containing protein that functions as a repressor of cold-related gene expression through CBF/DRE1 and possibly other pathways in *Arabidopsis* (Lee et al.,

2004]. More recently, microarray analysis of a large portion of the *Arabidopsis* genome revealed that expression of at least one ERF1 gene finger protein was induced in response to cold (Winder and Thomashaw 2002), indicating that ERF1 finger proteins may also be involved in regulation of cold or other environmental stress-induced gene expression. In this study, expression of a ERF1-like finger domain containing PFL-ORF was induced in response to both cold and drought in *Populus* and *gutticola*. Since the expression level of PFL-ORF was much higher in dehydrated plants than the cold-acclimated plants, PFL-ORF regulation of gene expression may be more important in *Populus* and *gutticola* under drought stress than cold stress.

Three genes identified and characterized in this study showed cold-responsive, constitutive and differential expression in cold-hardy *Populus* and cold-sensitive *gutticola*. Since the expression of all three genes is significantly higher in cold-acclimated *Populus* than *gutticola*, they may contribute to cold hardiness in *Populus*. Since two of these genes encode proteins with highly conserved DNA-binding domains, they are likely to be involved in transcriptional regulation of other cold-related genes in *Populus*. Therefore, not only these genes, but downstream genes potentially activated by these proteins could contribute to cold hardiness in *Populus*. Although this study clearly establishes the cold regulated nature of these genes, further studies are needed for determination of their actual functions and involvement of these genes in cold hardiness in *Populus* and their potential use for improving cold tolerance in *Citrus*.

CHAPTER 5 SUB-CELLULAR LOCALIZATION OF COLD REGULATED GENES CORN AND COLE

Introduction

Dehydrins are a family of proteins that are commonly induced in response to environmental stress such as dehydration, low temperature, salinity, as well as in response to ABA treatment and during embryo development (Cline 1994). They are also referred to as group 2 late embryogenesis abundant (LEA) proteins since they were first identified during embryo development in cotton (Jink et al., 1983). Dehydrins are evolutionarily conserved among photosynthetic organisms as well as in yeast. They have been isolated from gymnosperms and angiosperms and the existence of dehydrins has also been detected in algae, cyanobacteria and yeast by immunological analysis using antibodies specific to dehydrins (Cline 1992, Mordue et al. 1994). The common features of this family of proteins include high hydrophilicity, basicity and presence of multiple tandem repeats containing highly conserved consensus sequences.

Dehydrins are characterized by conserved Y-, B-, E- and R-segments found in their stress and sequence (Cline 1994). The numbers of these various segments can be used for determining sub-classes of dehydrins and for comparison between classes of individual dehydrin genes (Comptall and Cline 1997, Chen et al. 1999). The Y-segment is composed of YTDNYGNP and one to three copies of it is usually found close to the N-terminus of many dehydrin proteins. The B-segment contains five to seven amino residues followed by three acidic amino acids and is located downstream of the Y

segment of some delipidins (Close 1996). The S-segments or phosphorylated tail may be involved in nuclear localization of nuclear delipidins ELM7 (Gosley et al. 1994) and female delipidin TAM44 (Gosley et al. 1996). The K segment consists of the 13-amino acid linker rich sequence (EGQ)AMDLKIQEPG and is found near the C-terminus of all delipidins, repeated once in 11 cases. The K segments are proposed to form class A amphipathic α helices (Shen 1991; Close 1996) which may act as an amphipole between hydrophobic surfaces of membrane phospholipids and the cytosol to protect membrane function. In addition, they may interact with partially denatured proteins to prevent aggregation of proteins and to protect function of proteins under environmental stress (Close 1996, 1997). The majority of delipidins contain a Φ -segment which is rich in glycine and polar amino acids and is tandemly repeated between K-segments. It has been proposed that the highly polar Φ -segment of delipidins interacts with polar groups on macromolecules in the cytoplasm and nucleus to prevent aggregation of macromolecules (Close 1997).

Since delipidins are induced in response to environmental stress, it was suggested that they have a role in delipidation induced stress tolerance in plants. Delipidins protect integrity of cells by stabilizing membranes and proteins through detergent or detergent-like activities (Close 1996, 1997; Jassal et al. 1998). Increased chilling tolerance in wheat is not correlated with reduced electrolyte leakage, indicating that the 15 kDa delipidin might not be protecting the plasma membrane, but that it reduces delipidation induced damage by interacting with internal membranes of the cells instead (Jassal et al. 1998). It was also proposed that COR15a delipidins from *Arabidopsis* interact with plant membranes and protect them from freezing induced lamellar to hexagonal phase

transitions (Thomson 1995). Recently it was suggested that the CORP from *Citrus aurantium* could influence oil tolerance in transgenic tobacco by inhibition of lipid peroxidation (Hsu et al. 2000).

Delipins display diverse tissue specific and sub-cellular localization patterns. Immunofluorescence and sub-cellular fractionation studies with a number of delipins demonstrated that they are mostly localized in the nucleus and cytoplasm (Chen 1996). However, some delipins have been found to be associated with plasma membranes (Zeng et al. 1998), chloroplasts (Wojnowski et al. 1999) and mitochondria (Beyers et al. 2000, 2001, Kim et al. 2000). Many delipins localized in the nucleus contain putative nuclear export localization signals (NLS) (Jensen et al. 1995, Gidley et al. 1998, Gidley et al. 1999, Gu et al. 1995, Woods et al. 1999). The nuclear localization of some delipins is tissue specific (Anglin et al. 1994), some such as LAE17 from maize and TAD4 from tomato respond posttranscriptional maturation (Gidley et al. 1999, Gidley et al. 1998) and others can only be localized in the nucleus under certain environmental stress such as cold (Kim et al. 1999).

Two cold-regulated genes COR11 and COR15 were isolated from seven-day-old malfeated *Persea triplaris* which is a cold-hardy winter relative (Cao et al. 1993). Expression of both genes was induced in response to cold, but repressed in response to drought and flooding. Both genes contained repeats of conserved hydrophilic R-segment within the protein and D segment similar to other delipins, and the C-segment. In addition, three Q-fluor repeats containing a conserved KQD DHR sequence motif and a putative bipartite NLS were also found in both COR11 and COR15 (Figure 3-1) (Cao et al. 1993). To determine if the NLS found in the cold regulated genes from *Persea* are

functional, sub-cellular localization of the products of these genes was analyzed in mouse epidermal cells.

Materials and Methods

Amplification COR1 Genes and Cloning of-murine Fusion Constructs

COR11 and COR19 genes were amplified by RT-PCR using specific primers. First, cDNA was synthesized from total RNA isolated from two-day cold-exhausted *Peromyscus* epidermis using Superscript II reverse transcriptase and oligo-dT primer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to manufacturer's instructions. Then, complete open reading frames of COR11 and COR19 were amplified from the cDNA by PCR with *Eco* DNA polymerase using primers specific to the 5' and 3' ends of the individual genes. *NotI* and *BglII* sites were incorporated in the 5' and 3' ends of both genes, respectively and the stop codons of both genes were deleted during PCR amplification. Since the putative NLS signal in the C-terminal half of the COR11 and COR19 genes was almost identical, the N-terminal half of COR11 was deleted by PCR amplification of the C-terminal half of this gene by PCR with *Eco* Polymerase using an internal primer with an *NotI* tag and the same 3'-terminal primer with a *BglII* site and removing the stop codon. The PCR products were purified using the Qspinch PCR Purification Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany), digested with *NotI* and *BglII* restriction enzymes (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and cloned into pCANDDA 1.00 binary vector cut with the same restriction enzymes to form the COR1 sequences (a β -galactosidase (*GAL2*) reporter gene in frame (Figure 5-1). The resulting plasmids were designated as pCANDDA 1101 + COR11 + COR19 and COR11C.

A



B

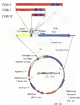


Figure S-1 Sequence alignment and cloning of COR genes for sub-cellular localization study. A) Amino acid sequence alignment of full length COR11, COR12 and C-terminal half of COR13 (COR13C). The asterisks indicate amino acids identical or almost conserved residues, respectively. The sequences of hyperactive NLS signals are shown in blue. B) Cloning of COR11, COR12 and COR13C into the pCMV-SER (198) luciferase vector to generate cor11-luciferase constructs. The red boxes indicate the position of genes cloned into the luciferase vector and the small blue boxes show the approximate locations of hyperactive NLS in subcloned genes. The components of luciferase vector are shown in the vector map.

Particle Bombardment of Mouse Epidermal Cells

The plasmids containing *cat* gene flanked construct (pCMVcat), CMV-CAT1.1, CMV-CAT1.2, and CMV-CAT1.3, as well as control plasmid pCMVcat-1301 were purified using Qiaprep Miniprep Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and concentrations of DNAs were determined spectrophotometrically. Tungsten particles (30 nm) were incubated in 70% ethanol for 15 min, washed three times with sterile water, and resuspended in 50% glycerol to obtain the concentrations of 40 mg/ml. A 50 μ l tungsten suspension was mixed with 2 μ g DNA from each construct, 14 mM spermidine, and 18 mM CaCl_2 , vortexed for 3 min, and incubated for 1 min at room temperature. After two washes with 70% ethanol, the tungsten particles coated with DNA were resuspended in 40 μ l of 100% ethanol. An aliquot (4 μ l) of tungsten particles was placed onto a microcarrier for particle bombardment. Two-splendored layers of silicon (silicon wafers) were peeled and placed on petri dishes containing Mannitope-Steamy water (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) pH 5.7 (4.3 g, 1M silicic acid/100 ml, Caledon, CA), 0.1 mg thiamine, 14 mg myo-inositol, 100 mg K₂HPO₄, 30 g sucrose, and 6 g agar) with 2.2 mg/l naphthalene-6 (Sigma). Epidermal cell layers of mouse were bombarded at 1000 psi using the Bio-Rad PDS-1000/Be System (Bio-Rad, Richmond, CA). Bombarded mouse samples were maintained at 28 °C for 24–48 h and analyzed for the expression of CAT or they were first maintained at 28 °C for 24–48 h then transferred to 4 °C for up to three days before analysis for CAT expression.

Intracellular Localization of CAT Gene Products in Mouse Epidermal Cells

Bombarded mouse epidermal cells were removed from media and fixed in 50 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.4 solution containing 1.2% formaldehyde, 0.05% TritonX-100 for

30 min at room temperature. After washing three times with 50 mM phosphate buffer for 15 min each, EpiH epidermal cells were transfected in 10 frames 4-chloro-3-methyl-benzyl-D-glucuronate (X-gal) solution containing 0.5 mM X-gal, 50 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.4, 1 mM potassium ferrocyanide, 1 mM potassium ferricyanide, and 0.1% TritonX-100 and incubated at 37°C for 4–16 hours. After GUS staining, samples were transferred to water and analyzed for expression and localization of GUS in the epidermal cells by light microscopy (GusH). GUS fluorescence slides were prepared from GUS-stained samples and a 4,4'-diaminobenzyl-2-thiocyanate (DAPI) solution (50 µg/ml, DAPI, 0.1% PMS, 10 mM Na acetate, 50% glycerol) applied onto the slides to localize the nuclei as previously described by Melnick et al. (1993). The slides were mounted under light microscopy to observe GUS expression and localization of the nuclei stained with DAPI and photographed using a camera attached to the microscope.

Results

To determine if the previously reported ligand/nuclear localization signal (NLS) of trans- genes of *Pinus*, COB11 and COB15, are functional, these genes were fused to a GUS reporter gene in the pCAGGS4.104 binary vector (Figure 1–3). Epidermal cells were transfected with control plasmid (100) and plasmid containing the fusion constructs (CO11-COB11, COB15, and COB11C). Fluorescent-GUS assays showed that all constructs resulted in GUS expression in the control epidermal cells, indicating that all constructs were functional and the particle bombardment was successful. Analysis of GUS expression and its distribution in the cells with microscopy demonstrated that in trans epidermal cells transfected with control plasmid pCAGGS4.104 blue GUS staining was evenly distributed in the cytoplasm, indicating that the GUS localized in the cytoplasm and did not reach the nucleus by diffusion (Figure 1–2). In contrast to 1990

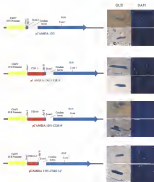


Figure 1-2 Sub-cellular localization of COX2 gene in rat oral epidermal cells. The maps of partial T-SMAs, regions of the control plasmid and plasmids containing COX2 gene sequences fused to the GUS reporter gene are shown on the left. Pictures showing the expression and distribution of GUS in rat oral epidermal cells transfected with control and nuclear localization constructs are presented on the right side of the individual constructs. Pictures on the left panel present the transmembrane GUS staining showing the expression and distribution of GUS in the rat oral epidermal cells transfected with specific constructs. Pictures on the right panel present the DAPI staining showing the location of the nucleus in the rat oral epidermal cells.

The expression of GUS was visualized mainly in the nucleus, with some GUS expression observed in the cytoplasm of the epidermal cells of mice transfected with COR11 and COR19 fusion constructs. The results demonstrated that the COR genes are able to localize GUS in the nucleus of mouse epidermal cells indicating that the previously proposed nuclear localization signals of these two genes are functional. When the GUS staining was done for a short period of time (4 h) under the expression of GUS in the individual cells was low. GUS expression was first seen in the nucleus and as the expression increased, the GUS staining started to appear in the cytoplasm (data not shown), indicating that the nucleus is the primary target for these proteins. To determine if temperature has any effect on nuclear localization of these gene products, after initial incubation at 28°C, the transfected epidermal cells were transferred to 4°C. No difference in GUS staining was observed between the samples kept at 28°C and the ones transferred to 4°C, indicating that temperature has no effect on nuclear localization of these proteins in mice epidermal cells.

Since the nuclear localization signals of COR11 and COR19 were found close to the C-terminus of the protein, the N-terminal half of COR11 was deleted and only the C-terminal half of the protein was fused to GUS gene in the binary vector to generate pCAMBIA1301-COR11 C (Figure 3-1). When the mouse epidermal cells were transfected with this construct, a high level of GUS expression was observed in nuclei which were identified by DAPI staining and some GUS expression was also found in the cytoplasm, showing that the C-terminal half of the COR11 is sufficient for the nuclear localization of the fusion GUS reporter gene (Figure 3-2). As the other constructs, temperature had no effect on nuclear localization of this construct.

Discussion

Two cell-regulated genes, COR11 and COR15, sharing homology to *dehydrin* were previously isolated from *Pinus taeda* saplings. These genes not only contained conserved signature domains of G- and S-segments but also contain sequences similar to previously characterized *Spartina* NLS (Cai et al. 1992). Since it has been proposed that *dehydrins* are involved in protection of membranes and proteins of cells under environmental stress conditions (Closs 1996, 1997, Girdley et al. 1994), the sub-cellular location of these proteins are important for understanding their function in the cell. Therefore, tissue-distribution and sub-cellular localizations of *dehydrins* have been explored extensively to assign function(s) to specific *dehydrins* isolated from different plants. Immunolocalization and sub-cellular fractionation assays revealed that the majority of *dehydrins* are localized both in the nucleus and cytoplasm of different plant cells (Marney et al. 1993, Girdley et al. 1994, Girdley et al. 1994, Bouda et al. 1995, Closs 1996, 1997).

Sub-cellular localizations of COR11 and COR15 in maize epidermal cells showed that these proteins are localized in the cytoplasm and nucleus indicating that in addition to sequence homology, *Pinus taeda dehydrins* may be functionally similar to previously characterized *dehydrins* from other plants which are localized in the nucleus and cytoplasm (Marney et al. 1993, Girdley et al. 1994, Girdley et al. 1994, Bouda et al. 1995, Closs 1996). Localization of these proteins in the nucleus and cytoplasm suggests that they may be involved in the protection of membranes and macromolecules in the nucleus and cytoplasm as was proposed for other *dehydrins* (Closs 1997). The expression level of the GUS reporter gene was consistently and significantly higher in the nucleus than the cytoplasm of maize epidermal cells bombarded with all three constructs in repeated

experiments. In addition, when GUS expression was analyzed early following bombardment (5-hr) and/or the level of GUS expression was low in individual cells, the protein was primarily localized in the nucleus. These results suggested that although COR1 and COR5 were found both in the nucleus and cytoplasm, the primary target of these proteins is the nucleus. Accumulation of COR11 and COR19 primarily in the nucleus implies that they may be involved in protection of macromolecules in the nucleus such as regulatory proteins and/or transcriptional machinery under cold stress. A similar function was also suggested for a wheat dehydrin, WCN128 which is localized in the nucleus and cytoplasm of wheat leaves (Fiorani et al. 1993).

Some dehydrins are localized in the nucleus after posttranslational modification of the protein through phosphorylation of S residues in the B-segment (Crisley et al. 1994, Crisley et al. 1994) and others require certain environmental stress such as cold for nuclear localization (Rouse et al. 1999). These constituting bombarded cells at 25 and 4 °C did not have any effect on the distribution of the proteins in the cell, unlike the Arabidopsis dehydrin from leaf, (Fiorani, unpublished) (Rouse et al. 1999) and/or the *Phaseolus* dehydrin require change in temperature for their localization in the nucleus. The phosphorylation status of the B-segment of COR11 and COR5 and its effect on the nuclear localization was not studied and is still unknown.

It has been reported that dehydrins from some species such as RAMC from rice and CAPD from soybean were primarily or exclusively localized in the cytoplasm (Mundy and Chou 1988; Hwang et al. 1993). More recently it has been shown that dehydrins from some plants localize primarily in chloroplasts (Wassenaar et al. 1995) or plasma membrane (Danyluk et al. 1998). In this study no specific localization of COR

genes to cell walls or plasma membranes of cells epidermal cells was observed. Otherdehydases, including the COR13 from *Lotus umbellatus* (COR13L) which is a homolog of COR13 from *Persea* used in this study, were mainly localized in the mitochondria (Bauerhuf et al. 2000, 2001; Han et al. 2002). Sub-cellular Fractionation of transgenic tobacco expressing CaCOR13 showed that although the main location of the CaCOR13 was the mitochondria some of the protein was found in the nucleus (Han et al. 2002) indicating that even very similar dehydrases from closely related species may show different sub-cellular localization. The variation in the localization patterns of these two proteins may be due to the differences in the method or the type of plant cell used for sub-cellular localization studies. Constitutive expression of CaCOR13 in tobacco decreased electrolyte leakage by reducing lipid peroxidation and the CaCOR13 protein expressed in lettuce prevented peroxidation of soybean liposomes *in vitro*. Based on these results it was suggested that this dehydrase increased cold tolerance by protecting the integrity of membranes of the cell by decreasing peroxidation *in tobacco*. This study was focused on sub-cellular localization of two dehydrases from *Persea* and provided experimental evidence the localization of these proteins in the nucleus and cytoplasm. Understanding of the role of *Persea*-COR13 and COR13L-genes in cold tolerance and their possible mechanism of action will require further experiments in *Persea* or other plants.

CHAPTER 6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Citrus is one of the most important fruit crops in the world with an annual production exceeding one hundred million metric tons. Production of citrus is mostly limited by low-temperature outside the tropical and subtropical regions. Most commercial citrus types are cold-sensitive and subjected to low temperatures and freezes in the subtropical regions. Occasional freezes cause significant damage and economic losses in citrus areas growing regions, including Florida. Therefore, improving cold tolerance of commercial varieties is an important goal for the citrus industry. *Poncirus trifoliata*, a warm temperate Citrus relative and wilder Citrus, is now tolerant temperatures as low as -10°C when it is subdormant. Thus, it serves as good genetic resource for improving cold tolerance in Citrus. Because of this characteristic, it has been used in breeding programs; however, mechanisms of cold response in *Poncirus* have not been explored at the molecular level.

To identify genes induced during cold acclimation, reverse and forward subtracted cDNA libraries were prepared using cold acclimated and nonacclimated *Poncirus* seedlings. A total of 192 randomly picked colonies, 134 from forward and 58 from reverse subtracted libraries were sequenced and they showed that a number of cDNA clones had homology to previously characterized cold response genes in other plants. Expression studies with reverse northern blot analysis demonstrated that expression of 17 cDNAs was changed two to 40 fold, indicating that they are cold-regulated. Among them, 16 were induced and only one was repressed by cold. Cold-

Different genes identified in this study have homology to different groups of genes, including transcription factors and DNA binding proteins, heat shock proteins, LARs, and some metabolic genes. Differential expression of 17 selected cDNAs in response to cold was confirmed by northern blot analysis using gene specific probes in cold-acclimated and nonacclimated *Populus plant*.

Gene expression studies in other plants revealed that multiple pathways are involved in regulation of gene expression during cold-acclimation. Expression of cold-regulated genes is controlled by a number of transcription factors, some of which have already been characterized. A number of cDNAs from *are* cold-induced subunit of cDNA. Many share homology to previously characterized or putative transcription factors. Three of these cDNAs, P1-101, P1-111, and P1-121 were selected for further characterization. The full-length sequences of these cDNAs were obtained by 5' and 3' RACE using gene specific primers obtained from partial cDNA sequences.

Sequence analysis of the full-length cDNA of P1-101 encodes a protein containing an AP1 DNA binding domain and shared homology with previously characterized AP1 domain transcription factors from *Arabidopsis* and other plants. Northern blot analysis revealed that expression of this gene was reduced in response to cold acclimation in *Populus*, but not in *populus*. No changes in expression were detected in response to drought either in *Populus* or *populus*, indicating that this gene is induced only by relative *Populus*.

The full-length cDNA of P1-121 encodes for a LAR-like protein with two different, AP1 and B1, DNA binding domains. It shared homology to previously characterized LAR1 and LAR2-like proteins from other plants. When the expression of

PI-CIR was studied in response to cold and drought in *Perovskia* and *peruvskia*. Expression of PI-CIR was increased only in response to cold in *Perovskia*. No expression was detected in response to drought in *Perovskia* or in response to cold and drought in *peruvskia* suggesting that PI-CIR is a cold-regulated gene in *Perovskia*.

Sequence analysis revealed that the PI-CIR cDNA encodes a KIMD zinc finger protein that showed homology with two KIMD zinc finger proteins from *Arabidopsis*, one of which is induced by cold. Northern blot analysis showed that the expression of PI-CIR was induced in response to cold and drought in both *Perovskia* and *peruvskia*. The increase in gene expression was more significant in response to drought in both plants.

Sub-cellular localisation of COR11 and COR12 in onion epidermal cells with GFP fusion constructs showed that these proteins are localised in the nucleus and cytoplasm, but accumulated predominantly in the nucleus. Deletion of the N-terminal half of COR11 demonstrated that C-terminal half conserved in both genes was sufficient for nuclear localisation.

This study reports the first comprehensive analysis of gene expression during cold acclimation and identification of over 90 cold-regulated genes in cold-hardy *Perovskia*. The results of expression analysis of cold-regulated genes by various methods lead to following conclusions: (1) Identification of many genes regulated by cold confirms the quantitative nature of the cold-hardiness trait in *Perovskia*; (2) Cold-regulated genes identified in *Perovskia* are involved in a variety of cellular functions indicating that cold acclimation induces many biochemical and physiological changes in *Perovskia* as in other plants; (3) Most of the cold-regulated genes identified in *Perovskia* are similar to cold-regulated genes in *Arabidopsis* and other plants suggesting the presence of similar cold

responsive pathways are induced during cold acclimation. (4) Some of cold-regulated genes are induced in cold-tolerant *Pinus* spp., but not in cold-sensitive genotypes indicating that differential expression of these genes and others may be responsible for cold tolerance in *Pinus* spp.

The purpose of this project was to study changes in gene expression during cold acclimation in cold-tolerant versus intolerant *Pinus* spp. Using subtractive hybridization, reverse Northern, and Northern-blot analysis more than 50 genes were identified. Although this may not be the complete list of genes regulated by cold in *Pinus* spp., this study provides the first comprehensive information about changes in gene expression during cold acclimation. The genes identified in this study, especially the ones involving regulatory proteins, should be further characterized to elucidate their functions and involvement in cold hardiness. Since two of these genes encode proteins with conserved DNA-binding domains and show homology with previously characterized transcription factors, DNA binding activity of these genes can be demonstrated by electrophoretic mobility shift assay or yeast one-hybrid system. Once the binding specificity is established, the target genes controlling the specific regulatory responses can be identified. Constitutive expression and/or antisense inhibition of these genes in *Pinus* spp. may reveal the role of these genes in cold hardiness. In addition, since these genes were not induced or induced little in response to cold in genotypes, overexpression of these genes in cold-sensitive *Pinus* species may improve their cold tolerance.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Melike Sahin-Cemil was born in Maltepe, Turkey in 1971. Two years later, she moved to Ankara and completed her high school education there. She graduated from the College of Agriculture of Ankara University with B.S. degree in horticulture in June 1994. One year after graduation, in July 1995, she was awarded a scholarship by the Turkish Ministry of Education to pursue M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in the field of Horticulture in the USA. Before coming to the USA, she studied English for 4 months at Middle East Technical University in Ankara, Turkey. In May 1996, she came to Gainesville, Florida, and attended the English Language Institute at the University of Florida for 1 year. She began her master's degree program in the Horticultural Sciences Department in May 1997 and worked on molecular markers and QTL mapping in Citrus. After finishing her master's degree program, she started her Ph.D. program in the Horticultural Sciences Department in May 1999. She is expected to graduate in December 2000.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy


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